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This Issue in Brief

Great variations were found in the proportions of men 45 years old or over employed in manufacturing establishments in Massachusetts in October 1935. A survey by the Department of Labor and Industries of that State disclosed that the percentages of older men in many of the industries were far above the proportion of men 45–64 years of age in the general population of Massachusetts. On the other hand, in certain industries the percentages of older men employed fell very much below the population standard. In establishments manufacturing radio apparatus only 7.1 percent of the male workers were 45 years of age or over, while in silverware and plated-ware manufacturing concerns 53.3 percent of the men were in that age group. Page 1359.

Many families are now installed in the new subsistence and farm homesteads provided through the operations of the Resettlement Administration, and the three suburban "greenbelt towns" are well under way. The Administration's program has reached a point where it is possible to describe in some detail the management and financial arrangements under which the communities will operate and to give specific information on typical projects. This is done in an article beginning on page 1387.

A system for clearing labor among the several States is maintained by the United States Employment Service in accordance with a special provision of the Wagner-Peyser Act of June 1933. Facilities for shifting from one area to another labor required but not available locally are particularly important to industry in periods of economic recovery. Through this clearance procedure, over 227,000 placements were made in positions in the several States during the calendar year 1936. For the first quarter of 1937 nearly 24,000 such placements are reported. Page 1401.

Allowances for vacations with pay for production workers have been provided for in a number of collective agreements. Annual paid vacations are general in agreements among licensed ship officers and in the rubber and petroleum industries, but the provision is fairly frequent on city street-railway and bus lines, in retail trade, and in newspaper editorial rooms. Page 1486.

Average annual earnings in the iron and steel industry in 1934 amounted to $1,124 for those employees whose work periods extended over 52 weeks during the year. Those whose work was spread over 40 or

more weeks averaged $1,045, while the average for all employees who worked any part of 1934 was $948. These figures include both male and female wage earners and also office employees. However, they refer only to earnings of individuals in particular establishments and do not include possible earnings from other sources during the periods in which the individual was not employed in the iron and steel plant to which he was normally attached. Page 1526.

There were 34,138,000 persons employed in nonagricultural industries in the United States in March 1937, according to estimates made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. This represented an increase of more than 8,200,000 above the low point of the depression in March 1933, and brought the total to within about 1,240,000 of the number employed in March 1929. This does not mean, of course, that unemployment had been reduced to within 1,240,000 of the 1929 level, as, due to normal population growth, there had been a very considerable increase in the number of employable persons. Page 1420.

Forty-five States have union-label laws which authorize associations of employees to adopt a device to designate the products of their labor. These laws secure to labor organizations the right to register, use, and protect from counterfeit or unauthorized use the trade marks or labels chosen by them to distinguish the products of union labor from other goods or manufactured articles. Page 1472.

Cooperative housing in Europe, although very successful in providing good homes at lower cost than those privately built, has not benefited the lowest income group of the population, according to the report of the commission appointed by the President to study cooperatives in Europe. Also, the commission found no evidence that private building initiative had received any permanent injury from the development of cooperative housing. Page 1439.

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Discrimination in the Employment of Older Workers in Massachusetts[1]

By LUCILE EAVES, PROFESSOR EMERITA, SIMMONS COLLEGE, BOSTON

MASSACHUSETTS wage earners complain bitterly that employers refuse jobs to middle-aged workers. They have called upon the General Court at its sessions of 1934, 1935, 1936, and 1937 to find remedies for this alleged discrimination. A healthy worker feels that he is in his prime when 45 to 65 years old; he has acquired skill and experience, his self-respect has been sustained by many years of useful services, and he feels that he has established property rights in his job. The welfare of his family and many other social interests are dependent on his regular employment. His right to security in old age is now recognized, but he knows that the effort to build up a pension at 65 will be futile without an earned income during the previous 20 years.

The employment status of these mature workers at the time when the demands for legal protection reached a focus can be appraised with the help of data gathered in the State-wide census of unemployment made in Massachusetts in January 1934. One-fourth of the men and one-fifth of the women 45 to 64 years old were unable to find the gainful employment which they sought at that time. It is true that young persons not yet 20 years old had even less success in finding work, and that relays of these idle youths increased the percentages of unemployment of workers 20 to 44 years old in 1934 to an even greater rate than that of workers 45 to 64 years old (tables 1 and 2). However, it is probable that the depression caused greater unhappiness for the older than for the younger men and women. They had lost positions in which they felt securely established and a

[1] Statistical data presented in this article have been taken chiefly from reports of investigations conducted by Roswell F. Phelps, director of statistics, of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries. I am indebted to the department also for the charts. The investigations of discrimination in employment covered a larger range of topics than could be included in the space allotted for this article. More complete reports of the minutes of public hearings, and of data obtained from employers, departments of public welfare and public employment bureaus will be published in the full report, which will appear as a part of the Annual Report of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries for 1936.

high proportion were supporting family dependents. Many of the young persons had never obtained regular employment. The younger men quickly exhausted their resources and required the aid of temporary Government work, but the older men had accumulated property and savings which they used before becoming eligible for this assistance. Thus 23.2 percent of the men 20 to 44 years old had temporary Government work in 1934, but this assistance was given to only 20.9 percent of the men 45 to 65 years old.

Success of the men and women in finding work when they were in the age groups 45 to 64 is not readily comparable, because a high proportion of the women were not seeking employment. Thus in 1934 there were 95 men to every hundred women in the ages between 45 and 64, but there were at this time 436 of these older men to every hundred of the women who were seeking employment. This lack of competition seems to have given the older women some advantage. In the younger age groups their rate of increase in unemployment was higher than that of the men—304.8 percent for women 20 to 44 years old, as compared with 272.2 percent for men—but in the age groups between 45 and 64 the increases in unemployment between 1930 and 1934 were 256.7 percent for women and 261.0 percent for men. It is true, also, that in 1934 the percentages of women desiring work who failed to find employment were less in all adult age groups (tables 1 and 2). Unemployed women received much less Government aid than men, as only 0.5 percent of the younger and 0.4 percent of the older age groups were provided with this work in 1934.

Table 1.—Percent of Massachusetts Employable Workers Who Were Unemployed in January 1934, by Age Groups

Age group	Percent of employable workers unemployed[1]		
	Total	Males	Females
14 years	52.3	51.7	52.9
15 years	60.8	62.4	59.7
16 years	63.6	66.1	60.9
17 years	56.6	61.5	51.3
18 years	51.2	56.3	45.7
19 years	45.5	50.2	40.0
20 years	38.4	43.5	32.4
21 to 24 years	28.2	33.7	21.2
25 to 29 years	21.0	25.0	13.9
30 to 34 years	19.0	21.0	13.7
35 to 39 years	19.5	20.7	15.9
40 to 44 years	20.0	20.9	16.7
45 to 49 years	22.0	22.8	19.0
50 to 54 years	23.3	24.1	19.9
55 to 59 years	25.6	26.3	21.9
60 to 64 years	27.2	28.4	20.7
65 to 69 years	29.8	31.2	21.0
70 years and over	24.8	26.3	14.3
All ages reported	25.2	26.6	21.7

[1] These percentages show unemployment of women seeking opportunities to earn. A much higher proportion of men seek gainful employment.

Data from table 3, Report on the Census of Unemployment in Massachussetts, as of Jan. 2, 1934.

Table 2.—**Changes in Number of Adults Unemployed in Massachusetts, 1930 [1] to 1934,[2] by Sex and Age Groups**

Age groups	Number of unemployed					
	Total		Males		Females	
	1930	1934	1930	1934	1930	1934
20 to 44 years	87,331	244,269	67,225	182,982	20,106	61,287
20 to 24 years	25,309	80,444	18,188	52,799	7,121	27,645
25 to 29 years	17,235	48,725	13,202	37,206	4,033	11,519
30 to 34 years	14,628	37,751	11,576	30,233	3,052	7,518
35 to 39 years	15,598	39,263	12,423	31,542	3,175	7,721
40 to 44 years	14,561	38,086	11,836	31,202	2,725	6,884
45 to 64 years	45,350	118,077	38,162	99,625	7,188	18,452
45 to 49 years	13,939	36,310	11,494	30,003	2,445	6,307
50 to 54 years	12,396	33,291	10,332	27,787	2,064	5,504
55 to 59 years	10,715	26,303	9,112	22,431	1,603	3,872
60 to 64 years	8,300	22,173	7,224	19,404	1,076	2,769
65 to 69 years	5,417	14,023	4,828	12,606	589	1,407
70 years and over	3,232	7,183	2,923	6,668	309	515

[1] This includes class A "persons out of a job, able to work, and looking for a job" and class B "persons having jobs but on lay-off without pay, excluding those sick or voluntarily idle", from the Federal Census of 1930.

[2] Those willing and able to work but wholly unemployed and those holding temporary Government or private jobs. Figures from the "Census of Unemployment in Massachusetts, as of Jan. 2, 1934."

The percentages of increase in unemployment in the two age groups 20–44 years and 45–64 years from 1930 to 1934 are shown below:

Age group:	*Males*	*Females*	*Both sexes*
20–44 years	272. 2	304. 8	279. 8
45–64 years	261. 0	256. 7	260. 4

Although the complaints of discrimination in employment against the workers over 45 years old were common long before the depression period, the demands for legislation which gave rise to the investigations summarized in this article began in 1934. The recess commission, to which the petition for relief was referred, was assigned also the task of recommending alterations in the Massachusetts Old-Age Assistance Act. The need of adjusting that measure to the Federal social-security legislation absorbed the attention of the legislators in 1935, so that but little consideration was given to the alleged discrimination against the older workers seeking employment. The Department of Labor and Industries was instructed to make an investigation and recommend a bill to the 1936 session of the General Court. Between September 27 and December 2, 1935, 14 public hearings and 2 conferences were held in important industrial centers of the State. The evidence presented in the hearings reflected the experiences or beliefs which had given rise to the demands for remedies, but were too indefinite or even contradictory to supply a sound basis for legislation. A preliminary report was submitted to the speaker of the house on April 21, 1936. After conference with the house and senate chairmen of the legislative committee on labor, and with Representative Clampit of Springfield, who introduced the resolve providing

for the investigation, the speaker returned the preliminary report with a statement to the effect that he felt it would not be advisable to print the preliminary report for consideration by the legislature so late in the session. Investigations were continued by the Department of Labor and Industries, and extracts from its final report were presented in support of house bill 33 of the session of 1937. The large accumulation of statistical data, a portion of which have been utilized in this discussion, will be published in the annual report of the department of labor and industries for the year 1936.

Abstract of Testimony Presented at the Public Hearings [2]

THE public hearings were attended chiefly by members of the General Court and officials of trade-unions. For obvious reasons, individual wage earners suffering from discrimination were reluctant to make public complaint of refusal to employ because of alleged incapacity due to advancing years. However, the secretaries of their unions usually serve as placement agents, so their testimony has the validity of direct contact with employment problems. Complaints of discrimination were least in occupations where there were strong unions and relatively stable working forces. Thus, reports of trade-union officials were most favorable for the printers and railway employees. The president of the Worcester Typographical Union testified:

> We have a number of gray-haired people working in our organization and we have our own pension plan applying to printers who have reached the age of 60 or over. Some of them work 2 days a week in the office and with their pension are able to average about $27 a week. * * * When a man begins to slow up, his knowledge of the business is still very valuable, and he is transferred to some other department within the shop where his years of experience can be utilized to advantage. During my 30 years with this organization in Worcester, I don't know of any discrimination in our business on account of age. A man's knowledge of job printing is valuable until he drops.

The President of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, Local No. 426, gave even stronger evidence of success in the protection of older workers:

> We have always gone along on the theory that the older the men, the more efficient they are. Most of the men in the train service are between 50 and 75. The biggest percentage of the men employed in our branch average 60 years of age. We have men working who are 75, still going strong, and we contend that our organization is built on that theory of protecting the older men. Sometimes an argument will come up about the efficiency of a man, but we are always able to keep him on his job. * * * At certain times officials have taken the stand and criticised the older men, perhaps even taken them out of the service for a short time, but they are always reinstated. * * * There are certain rules for restricting the hiring after they are 35 in our train-service department, but that does not interfere with the men who have been employed. * * * These restrictions apply to those entering the service. * * * Some of our men have worked for us from 30 to 60 years.

[2] These have been taken' rom the minutes of the hearings which will be presented more fully in the report of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries.

These accounts of stable employment for older workers are quite exceptional. The greater part of the testimony presented in the hearings consisted of depressing repetitions of complaints that workers over 45 years old were refused employment without an opportunity to demonstrate efficiency. Discrimination appeared to be greatest when work is seasonal or temporary with opportunities for frequent separations and rehirings. Thus members of the building trades, particularly the painters and carpenters, complained that they suffered not only from the general inactivity in construction, but also from marked unwillingness to engage the older workers. Their officials were particularly bitter about the refusal to employ older men on Federal building projects.

Officials in building trades in Worcester, Brockton, Lawrence, Pittsfield, Greenfield, Fall River, New Bedford, and Boston told the same stories of contractors' insisting, when help was ordered, that young men must be sent. The painters complained that when medical examinations were given for insurance, the doctors were sure to reject older men because they found traces of lead poisoning. Those employing the painters insisted that spry, young men were needed because there would be much climbing, but the suggestion that older men could do inside work seems to have brought no results.

Orders sent to carpenters' unions also specified that only young men were desired, and when the older men were sent they were dismissed after 1 or 2 days of work. The business agent of the Brockton carpenters' union said the employers seldom insist that only young men be taken on, but that the foremen and superintendents of work often do and will dismiss the older men. "It happened this fall, within a few weeks ago. The foreman said he wanted men and wanted young men, not old ones. On one job I sent them some men, and they worked 1 day and then the employer told me the men were too old. I could cite case after case." Similar complaints came from Pittsfield. "Some time ago a representative of a big local concern applied at the union hall for some carpenters, but he frankly stated that no men over 45 would be accepted. * * * When the C. C. C. Camp was going up I sent some older carpenters—around 50 or 60—but they only stayed on the job for about 2 days. Younger men were out in their places."

"You cannot do away with discrimination until the unemployed are employed. There are 15,000 out of work in New Bedford. Who can imagine a situation like that with no discrimination on account of age?" exclaimed the representative of the New Bedford spinners. This applies to factory workers in all the large industrial centers of the State. The index numbers showing the fluctuations in numbers employed, in comparison with the averages for 1925, 1926, and 1927, give mathematical verification of the common stories of wholesale dismissals and opportunities for selective rehiring which brought bitter dis-

appointment to many of the unwanted, older workers. Employment was at a minimum in nearly all factories in 1932, but marked improvements came in 1934 or 1935, the years when hearings about discrimination were under way. Of the cities where hearings were held, Fall River and Lynn were the only ones which failed to share in this upward trend.

Table 3.—Index Numbers of Employment in Representative Manufacturing Establishments in 15 Leading Industrial Cities of Massachusetts [1]

City	Annual index numbers of employment (average number employed in 1925, 1926, and 1927 = 100.0)				
	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Boston	58.7	59.8	64.6	67.4	70.8
Brockton	63.0	69.9	76.1	75.8	73.7
Cambridge	63.5	69.1	70.5	70.4	75.0
Chicopee	49.4	46.9	63.3	69.8	69.7
Fall River	55.6	73.0	77.3	52.3	56.5
Fitchburg	50.6	60.8	65.5	73.7	79.3
Haverhill	64.3	75.2	69.1	70.4	72.9
Holyoke	51.3	64.5	57.5	66.7	66.4
Lawrence	66.3	82.6	76.5	108.5	104.4
Lowell	58.9	65.2	66.3	60.3	58.2
Lynn	61.5	59.7	59.6	57.6	61.7
New Bedford	46.6	65.9	69.8	71.0	68.7
Peabody	79.5	89.8	95.3	95.3	102.6
Springfield	62.3	69.4	79.5	78.1	89.7
Worcester	54.8	74.6	80.9	82.4	86.9

[1] From Annual Report of the Department of Labor and Industries for the year ending Nov. 30, 1936 (not yet published).

Representatives of the textile workers told of the hiring of nonresidents while older local workers were still unemployed. The secretary of the United Textile Workers of America, Local 1715, described this situation in Lawrence, where recovery has been most complete (table 3). His testimony in part was as follows:

> In no other place have I ever encountered so much discrimination against older workers. There is a general feeling of fear among the people. * * * Workers who have been employed for years, sometimes even 25 years and more, were laid off during slack periods and not rehired when the mills picked up again. These mills are going now at full capacity and there is room for these workers, because workers are flocking here from New Hampshire, Vermont, and Rhode Island. There is room for plenty of workers under 40. * * *
>
> Now I think it might be interesting if you would make a canvass of drug stores in this vicinity, and you will find that these druggists will tell you that they are doing a very good business in hair dyes, and that when the people buy them they will say that they have to keep their hair dark and look young in order to hold their jobs. * * * I also wish to mention that the mill workers refuse to give their right ages in Lawrence. In every mill except one, textile workers never pass the age of 55.

Similar experiences were recounted by officials of shoe and leather workers' unions, except that greater complaint was made of the evils of the speeding-up and bonus systems. Some protection was given by the seniority regulations in places where the unions were well

organized. But in this, as in other industries, reorganization after a period of shut-down usually resulted in the elimination of older workers. An official of the National Leather Workers' Union told of such a period of readjustment in a Lynn firm.

> Another concern was in business for 75 years, and at one time was the largest sheepskin plant in the world. This firm tried to keep quality and wages until they found themselves against the wall. They had at that time 100 employees over 50 years of age. These men were laid off and the factory shut down. * * * Out of these hundred men, 60 of them are on the welfare, or have been at one time or another. When the firm started up again, not 5 of the old men were taken back.

Several speakers declared that the garment workers suffer from speeding up to a pace which cannot be maintained by older workers. The representative of the International Ladies' Garment Workers described the situation in Fall River thus:

> I would like to say that there are 4,000 women employed in the mills, and more than half of these are under 21. I find that a special effort is made to employ younger women. The preference for younger women is due first of all to the speed and tension under which garment workers are employed. When women get to be 30 or 40, it is difficult for them to get back to work, because they are told they are slower than the younger people. The problem of old age does not start at 70; it starts much earlier, and it is a problem that we should do something about.

Testimony of Members of the General Court

One or more members of the General Court usually appeared at the hearings to tell of observations which confirmed the testimony of trade-union officials. They had received numerous personal appeals for assistance and could tell harrowing tales of individual cases of special hardship. Representative Ralph V. Clampit, of Springfield, who had sponsored the demands for investigation and legislation, gave three causes which he considered to be of major importance in promoting discrimination, namely, certain phases of the Workmen's Compensation Act, group insurance, and private-pension systems. The legislators pointed out the hardships of heads of families who were deprived of opportunities for gainful employment when their children are of high-school age and in need of education for useful citizenship. The mayor of Fall River gave emphasis to their statements of social evils by telling of the tax burdens created by the large number of older men who are on the welfare rolls.

Repeated charges that discrimination is promoted by the demands made by insurance companies carrying workmen's compensation were refuted by J. W. Downs, counsel for the Insurance Federation of Massachusetts. He pointed out that premiums are adjusted to the hazards of the industries and are based on pay rolls without regard to the ages of the employees.

The secretary of the Boston Retail Trade Board and employment manager of one of the largest department stores told of the generous treatment given older workers by Boston mercantile establishments. However, it was admitted that the chain stores gave work to very few older employees.

Investigation by Department of Labor and Industries

THE questionnaire sent by the statistics division of the Department of Labor and Industries to employers of 10 or more persons called for data which would make possible a more definite appraisal of the validity and extent of the evils complained of in the public hearings. Employers were asked to report workers on their pay rolls in October 1935, classifying them by sex and age groups. They were also told to give this information for all who had left or entered their employ between January 1934 and October 1935. Their policies in dealing with older workers were inquired into thus: Are there fixed ages of discharge and employment? Are older workers transferred to lighter tasks when their powers begin to fail? Are they protected by group insurance or retirement pensions? The employers responded willingly to the requests for information; no less than 3,781 establishments filled the elaborate questionnaires. The great mass of statistical data which they supplied permits definite quantitative statements of the employment status of older workers in Massachusetts.

The body of information gathered by means of the questionnaire represents the male workers of the State more accurately than the woman workers. This is particularly true of the data describing experiences of those in the older age groups: 31.6 percent of the employable men but only 18 percent of the employable women 45 years old and over were in the establishments from which reports were obtained. However, when all age groups are included, 32.2 percent of the male and 38.7 percent of the female workers are covered by the sample. The 1930 census reported less than half (47.3 percent) of the male gainful workers and less than a third (31.2 percent) of the female gainful workers engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries. In the reports from employing establishments three-fourths of the men (74.6 percent) and women (76.6 percent) were found in factories. Women were employed as teachers, private-duty nurses, office clerical help and in many forms of domestic and personal services which could not be covered in the investigation. It is probable that many of these scattering occupations have been more stable than work in the large establishments studied, as the percentages of unemployment reported for women in both the Federal census of 1930 and the State census of 1934 were less than those of men.

The proportions of older men and women in the sample studied corresponds more closely with that of the entire State than the occupational distribution. The 1934 census reported 36.5 percent of the employable men and 20 percent of the women in the age groups of 45 years and above. If it is assumed that workers are to retire at 65 when they become eligible for old-age assistance or for social-security pensions, then 31.3 percent of the men and 18 percent of the women are in need of employment when 45 to 64 years old. The 3,781 establishments of the sample group were employing 35.8 percent of men 45 years old and over in October 1935. This is only slightly less than the proportion of employable men in these age groups reported for the entire State 22 months earlier. Inasmuch as the sample from 3,446 establishments with female employees was less representative, it is not surprising that the percentage of older women—14.5—falls short of the 20 percent of women 45 years old and over found employable and in need of work in the census of unemployment of January 1934 (tables 4 and 5).

Table 4.—Persons 45 Years Old and Over Employed in Massachusetts Establishments, by Employer Groups and Sex, October 1935 [1]

Employer group	Number of establishments reporting employment of—		Number of employees			Employees 45 years old and over			
						Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
All groups	3,781	3,446	608,511	411,497	197,014	147,291	28,651	35.8	14.5
Large manufacturers	962	924	389,569	258,066	131,503	86,823	18,928	33.6	14.4
Small manufacturers	1,939	1,716	67,743	48,229	19,514	16,408	2,880	34.0	14.8
Chain stores	6	6	10,631	7,416	3,215	1,079	65	14.5	2.0
Other retail stores	430	406	33,509	19,495	14,014	5,636	2,663	28.9	19.0
Laundries	71	72	3,427	1,180	2,247	333	499	28.2	22.2
Dyers and cleaners	15	15	390	163	227	43	29	26.4	12.8
Bus transportation	8	6	513	493	20	87	3	17.6	15.0
Street railways	9	7	9,682	9,177	505	6,021	183	65.6	36.2
Steam railroads	4	(2)	34,732	34,732	(2)	20,352	(2)	58.6	(2)
Telephone and telegraph companies	3	3	18,643	7,292	11,351	2,689	1,010	36.9	8.9
Gas and electric companies	70	64	14,572	12,398	2,174	4,372	312	35.3	14.4
Hotels (not including restaurants)	31	31	2,935	1,702	1,233	441	368	25.9	29.8
Restaurants (including hotel dining rooms)	40	40	3,221	2,008	1,213	449	124	22.4	10.2
Private hospitals	48	46	6,972	2,135	4,837	673	1,077	31.5	22.3
Banks	17	17	1,117	720	397	266	68	36.9	17.1
Insurance companies	27	30	8,696	4,256	4,440	976	415	22.9	9.3
Contractors	85	53	1,780	1,689	91	548	15	32.4	16.5
Dairy and stock farms	16	10	379	346	33	95	12	27.5	36.4

[1] Based on returns from 3,781 establishments, of which 335 employed no females.
[2] No segregation by sex possible.

Table 5.—Percent of Persons 45 Years Old and Over Employed in Massachusetts Establishments, by Sex, October 1935 [1]

Employer group	Number of establishments reporting employment of—		Number of establishments whose proportion of employees 45 years old and over was—							
			None of the—		Less than 10 percent of the—		10 and less than 20 percent of the—		20 percent or more of the—	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
All groups	3,781	3,446	310	1,283	187	479	559	644	2,725	1,040
Large manufacturers	962	924	18	131	49	267	136	276	759	250
Small manufacturers	1,939	1,716	212	864	88	127	298	242	1,341	483
Chain stores	6	6	1	3	3	3	2	------	------	------
Other retail stores	430	406	43	193	33	38	66	54	288	121
Laundries	71	72	6	8	1	15	15	16	49	33
Dyers and cleaners	15	15	4	5	------	2	2	2	9	6
Bus transportation	8	6	------	3	------	------	3	------	5	3
Street railways	9	7	------	4	------	------	------	1	9	2
Steam railroads	4	[2]	------	[2]	------	[2]	------	[2]	4	[2]
Telephone and telegraph companies	3	3	------	------	------	2	------	1	3	------
Gas and electric companies	70	64	------	------	------	1	------	6	70	57
Hotels (not including restaurants)	31	31	3	3	2	1	4	5	22	22
Restaurants (including hotel dining rooms)	40	40	8	16	2	8	8	4	22	12
Private hospitals	48	46	------	1	1	2	4	20	43	23
Banks	17	17	------	3	2	5	2	4	13	5
Insurance companies	27	30	4	3	4	8	7	12	12	7
Contractors	85	53	11	41	2	------	8	------	64	12
Dairy and stock farms	16	10	------	5	------	------	4	1	12	4

[1] Based on returns from 3,781 establishments, of which 335 employed no females.
[2] No segregation by sex possible.

Discrimination in Manufacturing Establishments

First consideration will be given to the amount of discrimination in manufacturing establishments, because, as already pointed out, three-fourths of the workers covered by the questionnaires filled by employers were found in the factories, which make the chief contributions to the economic welfare of Massachusetts.

Separate consideration will be given to the reports of male and female employees. The variations between the sexes are so great that any merging of their statistical data produces figures which fail to give true pictures of the working conditions of either sex. Discrimination in the employment of the older men has the greater significance, both because they far outnumber the gainfully employed women of similar age groups, and because their loss of work often results in deprivations and unhappiness for older, and burdens or handicaps for younger, family dependents.

One-fourth of the manufacturing establishments from which questionnaires were received reported over 36 percent of their male workers to be 45 years old or over, and more than half (51.8 percent) had 31 or greater percentages of these older men in their employ (table 6). As previously pointed out, the men 45 years old and over constitute

36 percent of the employable male population of the State. The fourth of the factories with quotas equal to or above that of the general population were employing over a third (34.2 percent) of the factory workers reported in the 2,901 establishments covered by the investigation. If we include all factories with 31 percent or more of older workers, the percentage needed to correspond with male workers 45 to 64 years old in the general population, then three-fifths (61.6 percent) of all male workers reported will be found in the manufacturing establishments which met, or improved on, this minimum acceptable standard. That leaves about half the factories, employing two-fifths of the workers, with substandard proportions of older male workers.

These percentages of totals conceal surprising variations both between the employing groups of the sample gathered for the investigation of discrimination in employment, and also between industrial centers covered by the census of unemployment. Thus, the percentages of older men in manufacturing establishments varied from 53.3 in silverware and plated ware to 7.1 in radio apparatus, and those of women from 39.5 in paper and wood pulp to 1.1 in radio apparatus (tables 6 and 7). Industries tend to center in certain localities. No doubt the persons gathering census data judged employability by success in finding paid work. Hence, communities with few industries giving employment to older men and women have abnormally low percentages of employable persons in the older age groups. Thus Brockton was reported as having 40.7 percent and Fall River only 32.7 percent of employable men over 45 years old. The variation reported for women in these two industrial centers ran from 25.8 percent in Brockton to 16.9 percent in Fall River. It is impossible to believe that there are any such variations in the health and ability of wage-earning men and women. The differences might be overcome by intelligent planning within the communities and industrial establishments, and by vocational guidance and reeducation of the older workers.

Table 6.—Distribution of Men 45 Years Old or Over Employed in Massachusetts Manufacturing Establishments, October 1935

Industry	Number of establishments reporting	Number of men employed	Men 45 years old or over	
			Number	Percent
All industries	2,901	306,295	103,231	33.7
Silverware and plated ware	13	1,172	625	53.3
Textile machinery and parts	47	8,356	3,667	43.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus	13	1,681	732	43.5
Tools	11	1,533	653	42.6
Paper and wood pulp	51	7,333	3,107	42.4
Foundry and machine-shop products	153	13,799	5,721	41.5
Sugar refining	2	1,247	509	40.8
Wire work not elsewhere classified	12	859	340	39.6
Wire drawn from purchased rods	10	6,258	2,459	39.3
Machine tool accessories	14	2,184	857	39.2
Cordage and twine	10	1,106	423	38.2
Forgings, iron and steel	5	1,160	438	37.8
Cutlery and edge tools	22	1,526	574	37.6
Boots and shoes	183	24,371	9,159	37.6
Machine tools	12	2,077	766	36.9
Boot and shoe findings	77	3,013	1,097	36.4
Woolen goods	49	20,399	7,404	36.3
Liquors, malt	11	1,111	403	36.3
Jewelry	44	2,875	1,040	36.2
Abrasive wheels	10	2,853	1,034	36.2
Clothing, men's	58	2,146	758	35.3
Boot and shoe cut stock	48	1,472	514	34.9
Printing and publishing, newspapers and periodicals	54	6,675	2,303	34.5
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	61	9,617	3,289	34.2
Cotton goods	74	26,414	8,892	33.7
Envelopes	14	1,019	341	33.5
Furniture	100	4,584	1,525	33.3
Sporting and athletic goods	9	1,251	414	33.1
Paper goods	35	2,912	960	33.0
Carpets and rugs, wool	5	1,648	541	32.8
Cotton small wares	24	1,311	422	32.2
Nonferrous metal alloys and products	17	1,082	348	32.2
Printing and publishing, book and job	119	4,508	1,453	32.2
Meat packing, wholesale	16	2,920	934	32.0
Chocolate and cocoa products	4	820	261	31.8
Bookbinding and blank book making	29	1,119	352	31.5
Silk and rayon goods	26	3,484	1,095	31.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles	48	9,740	3,048	31.3
Clocks and watches	8	1,890	591	31.3
Stoves, ranges, and warm-air furnaces	10	3,137	983	31.3
Lithographing	8	738	227	31.0
Stationery goods	7	531	164	30.9
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	41	15,734	4,846	30.8
Clothing, women's	117	1,151	353	30.7
Carriages and sleds, children's	9	1,210	366	30.2
Worsted goods	35	10,564	3,157	29.9
Clothing, work, men's	19	421	125	29.7
Confectionery	39	1,597	473	29.6
Soap	5	1,860	547	29.4
Stamped and pressed metal products	23	958	279	29.1
Optical goods	10	2,608	750	28.8
Jute goods	2	1,350	384	28.4
Chemicals	5	2,568	728	28.3
Boots and shoes, rubber	4	4,124	1,146	27.8
Hats, wool-felt	2	744	206	27.7
Rubber goods, other than boots and shoes	28	4,578	1,254	27.4
Screw-machine products	13	1,307	342	26.2
Ship and boat building, steel and wooden	10	6,684	1,741	26.0
Druggists' preparations	8	763	197	25.8
Motor-vehicle bodies and parts	9	799	202	25.3
Knit goods	43	2,301	566	24.6
Linen goods	3	412	96	23.3
Boxes, paper	62	2,608	592	22.7
Miscellaneous articles	15	622	141	22.7
Petroleum refining	6	1,990	420	21.1
Shirts, men's	7	158	33	20.9
Bread and other bakery products	110	7,746	1,449	18.7
Housefurnishing goods	34	464	82	17.7
Furnishing goods, men's	17	191	31	16.2
Motor vehicles	3	1,360	197	14.5
Toys, games, playground equipment	12	1,112	148	13.3
Pocketbooks and purses	10	370	37	10.0
Radio apparatus	4	326	23	7.1
All other manufactures [1]	673	33,684	11,897	35.3

[1] Includes industries in which less than 1,000 persons were employed and those industries for which data cannot be given separately without disclosing the returns for individual establishments.

Detailed field studies would be required to discover explanations for the low percentages of older workers employed in these substandard establishments. Some, as radio apparatus and motor vehicles, may be newer industries in which older workers have not yet accumulated. Possibly this explains the low percentage in the largest substandard group, electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies, with 15,734 employees, only 4,846 (30.8 percent) of whom are 45 years old or over. There seems to be no reason why older workers would not be as well qualified for services in the worsted and linen industries as in the woolen, cotton, silk, and rayon mills, where they are more fully represented. Rubber boots and shoes would seem to offer work no more difficult for older men than that of the leather boots, shoes, cut stock, etc., where full quotas find employment. Apparently adjustments could be made in many establishments without sacrifice of efficiency if they were demanded by public opinion or by seniority regulations of strong trade-unions.

Further confirmation of this evidence of needless discrimination in manufacturing establishments is found in the fact that 230 factories had no male employees 45 years old or over, 137 had less than 10 percent, and 434 had 10 percent and less than 20 percent; thus 27.6 percent failed to reach a quota 11 percent less than that needed to give employment to healthy men seeking work when 45 to 64 years old, and 16 percent less than the employable men in the general population who are 45 years old or over. On the other hand, the percentages of older men found employed in the leather-shoe industries and woolen mills do not indicate that the bitter complaints of their representatives at the hearings were justified (tables 5 and 6).

The inconsistent treatment of older men in industry groups other than manufacturing indicates a general need for the arousing of public opinion for the enforcement of more considerate policies in dealing with the employment needs of older workers. Certainly there is no reason why chain stores should give work to only half the proportion of older men found in other retail stores. If banks can employ 36.9 percent of men 45 years old and over, insurance companies might do better than 22.9 percent. The hotels and restaurants are also substandard, although they have much work for which older men could qualify.[3]

The percentages of older women employed in Massachusetts manufacturing establishments were so small that doubts may be raised as to whether they always reported their ages accurately. Women are more adept than men in the arts which conceal the signs of approaching age. Certainly there is ample justification for the tendency to ignore birthdays after the dead line of 40 has been passed. Women were at work in 2,640 factories from which data were received, but only 14.5 percent were reported to be 45 years old and over. As

[3] See tables 4 and 5.

already pointed out, 20 percent of the employable women of Massachusetts are 45 years old and over and 18 percent are 45 to 64 years old. A third of the female factory workers were employed in 15.7 percent of the establishments which retained in their employ 20 percent or more of the women 45 years old and over. The cotton mills which

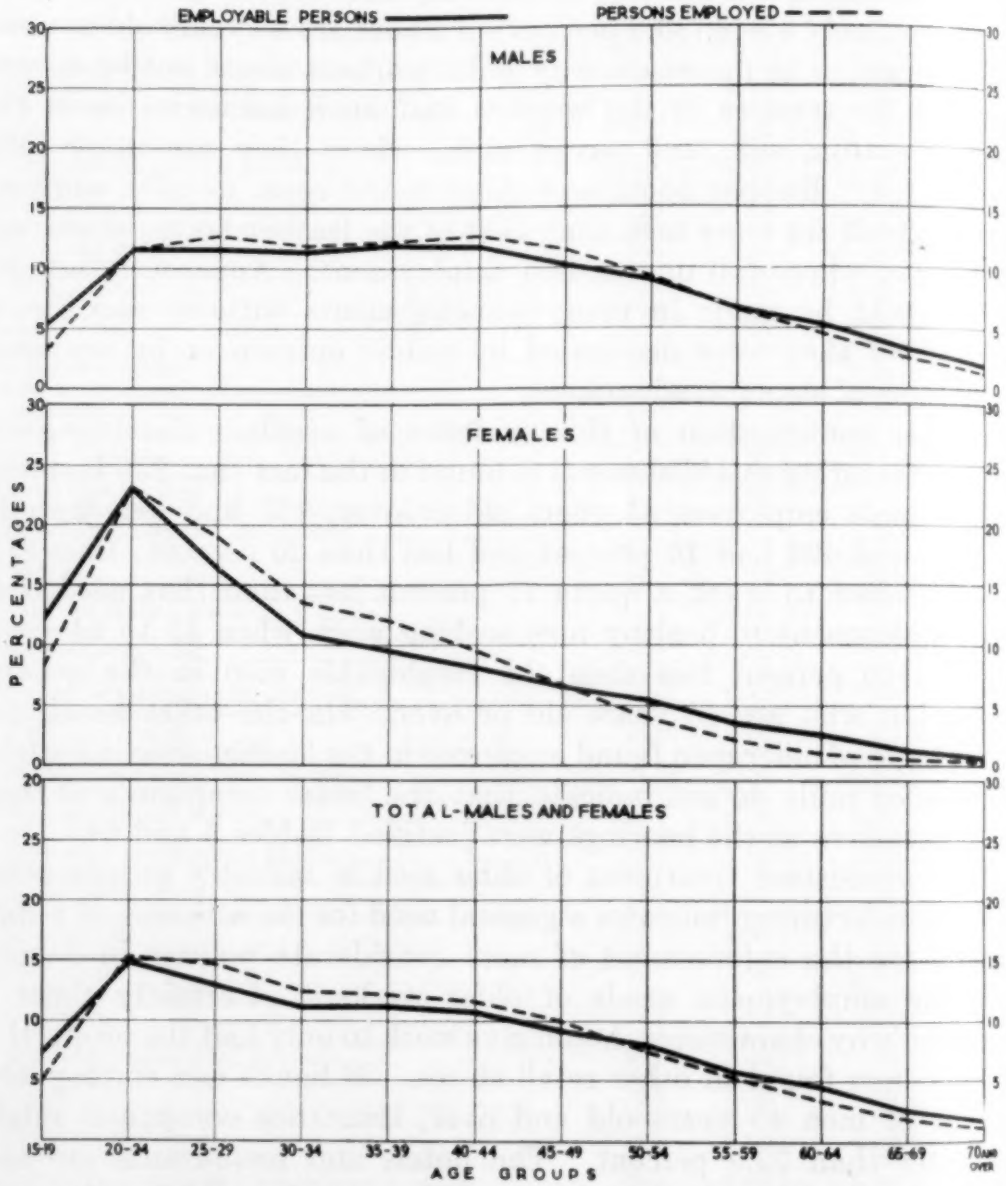


CHART 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF ALL EMPLOYABLE PERSONS IN THE POPULATION OF MASSACHUSETTS AND PERSONS EMPLOYED IN 3,781 ESTABLISHMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS.

have the largest group of woman employees reported 17.5 percent to be 45 years old and over. If these mills are added to those coming up to minimum standards (18 percent 45 to 64 years old), then one-fourth (25.8 percent) of the manufacturing establishments employing over half (53.9 percent) of the older women were meeting the requirements needed to give employment to these women until the age is reached when they become eligible for old-age assistance or social security pensions. Thus, table 7 indicates that three-fourths of the factories

employing nearly half (46.1 percent) of the woman factory workers were substandard as regards the proportion of women employed when 45 years old and over.

The paper and wood-pulp industry made the best showing in the proportion of older women given work. It employed 2,178 women, of whom 861 or 39.5 percent were 45 years old and over. On the other hand, the reports from establishments manufacturing women's clothing confirmed the charges made in the public hearings, as only 9.1 percent of the 6,364 woman workers were in the older age groups. The textile and boot and shoe industries, in which the largest groups of women were employed, made better records—20.2 percent for boots and shoes, 22.7 percent for woolen mills, and 17.5 percent for cotton mills. The 41 establishments making electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies, however, reported 6,762 women on their pay rolls, of whom only 337 or 5 percent were 45 years old and over.

Table 7.—Women 45 Years Old and Over Employed in Massachusetts Manufacturing Establishments, October 1935

Industry	Number of establishments reporting	Number of women employed	Women 45 years old and over	
			Number	Percent
All industries	2,640	151,017	21,827	14.5
Paper and wood pulp	44	2,178	861	39.5
Woolen goods	48	9,447	2,145	22.7
Forgings, iron and steel	5	32	7	21.9
Clothing, work, men's	19	1,058	226	21.4
Printing and publishing, book and job	116	2,362	496	21.0
Boots and shoes	184	17,934	3,631	20.2
Printing and publishing, newspapers and periodicals	54	1,002	196	19.6
Jewelry	46	1,467	286	19.5
Hats, wool-felt	2	266	52	19.5
Boot and shoe, cut stock	41	386	75	19.4
Silverware and plated ware	13	283	55	19.4
Textile machinery and parts	36	434	79	18.2
Cotton goods	74	20,836	3,645	17.5
Tools	10	238	41	17.2
Carpets and rugs, wool	5	689	118	17.1
Wire drawn from purchased rods	9	169	28	16.6
Cotton small wares	24	1,423	234	16.4
Shirts, men's	7	1,697	270	15.9
Bookbinding and blankbook making	43	789	125	15.8
Stationery goods	7	641	101	15.8
Clocks and watches	8	1,599	240	15.0
Jute goods	2	483	71	14.7
Machine tool accessories	13	341	49	14.4
Bread and other bakery products	94	2,463	355	14.4
Worsted goods	36	9,743	1,385	14.2
Carriages and sleds, children's	9	265	36	13.6
Knit goods	42	5,723	770	13.5
Sporting and athletic goods	9	413	53	12.8
Furniture	81	640	82	12.8
Druggists' preparations	8	803	102	12.7
Ship and boat building, steel and wooden	10	111	14	12.6
Foundry and machine-shop products	104	1,047	131	12.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles	44	2,163	257	11.9
Cordage and twine	10	320	38	11.9
Envelopes	14	1,344	159	11.8
Boxes, paper	59	2,635	295	11.2
Boot and shoe findings	71	1,451	160	11.0
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	45	1,355	144	10.6
Clothing, men's	60	4,004	423	10.6
Silk and rayon goods	26	3,642	371	10.2
Motor vehicles	3	10	1	10.0
Paper goods	34	1,789	175	9.8
Soap	5	530	52	9.8
Lithographing	8	301	29	9.6
Clothing, women's	126	6,364	578	9.1
Abrasive wheels	10	552	50	9.1

Table 7.—Women 45 Years Old and Over Employed in Massachusetts Manufacturing Establishments, October 1935—Continued

Industry	Number of establishments reporting	Number of women employed	Women 45 years old and over	
			Number	Percent
Linen goods	3	618	55	8.9
Liquors, malt	9	68	6	8.8
Cutlery and edge tools	20	506	42	8.3
Boots and shoes, rubber	4	3,439	287	8.3
Sugar refining	2	97	8	8.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus	12	127	10	7.9
Wire work, not elsewhere classified	12	331	26	7.9
Nonferrous-metal alloys and products	9	63	5	7.9
Confectionery	39	3,872	306	7.9
Chocolate and cocoa products	4	302	21	7.0
Optical goods	11	1,316	89	6.8
Machine tools	12	144	9	6.3
Meat packing, wholesale	13	350	22	6.3
Toys, games and playground equipment	12	566	35	6.2
Rubber goods, other than boots and shoes	25	1,956	110	5.6
Stoves, ranges and warm-air furnaces	9	182	10	5.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	41	6,762	337	5.0
Miscellaneous articles	14	690	34	4.9
Housefurnishing goods	34	1,224	57	4.7
Furnishing goods, men's	17	1,224	54	4.4
Screw-machine products	9	260	11	4.2
Chemicals	4	717	30	4.2
Stamped and pressed metal products	19	308	12	3.9
Petroleum refining	6	286	7	2.4
Pocketbooks, purses, etc	10	731	16	2.2
Motor-vehicle bodies and parts	5	456	9	2.0
Radio apparatus	4	739	8	1.1
All other manufactures [1]	563	10,261	1,520	14.8

[1] Includes industries in which fewer than 1,000 persons were employed and those industries for which data cannot be given separately without disclosing the returns for individual establishments.

The industry groups other than factories showed variations in the employment of older women, but somewhat less tendency to discrimination. The chain stores had even less use for older women than for men; of 3,215 female employees only 65 or 2 percent were 45 years old and over. But the other retail stores had a better record, coming next to factories in the numbers employed, having 19 percent in the older-age groups. The telephone and telegraph companies employed 11,351 women, but only 1,010 or 8.9 percent were 45 years old and over. It is somewhat surprising to find that the hotels employed a high percent (29.8) of older women. Seventy-one percent of the establishments employing 70 percent of the older women outside of factories were carrying more than the minimum quota (18 percent) of female employees 45 years old and over (table 4).

The social and economic maladjustments resulting from the inability of older Massachusetts women to find employment are evident from a brief review of their marital status, family dependents, and period when they will be in need of earned incomes. Over a third (34.1 percent) of the women of Massachusetts were reported as single in 1930, and 11.2 percent were widowed. The 1934 census showed that a fifth of the women seeking employment and judged to be employable were 45 years old and over. This large group of

working women has an average expectation of life of 26.54 years, and its members must find means of support at least until the age of 65 is reached, when old-age assistance or social-security pensions may begin. An income is necessary for their dependents as well as for themselves. In 1930 no less than 162,889 Massachusetts women were reported to be heads of families. The census of unemployment of 1934 tells of the employment status of 19,231 of these female heads of families who were seeking work and unable to obtain full-time positions. Over half (56.9 percent) were wholly unemployed, about a third (34.8 percent) had part-time work, and only 7.9 percent had the temporary Government employment supplied to 23.5 percent of unemployed male heads of families.

Policies in Dealing With Older Workers Reported by Employers

ANSWERS to questions about policies in dealing with older workers indicate that the discrimination which undoubtedly exists is the product of the depression conditions and of unregulated efforts to obtain a working force which will promote profits, rather than of a callous indifference to the welfare of the older workers. Only 37 establishments reported a fixed age limit for employment and an even smaller number, 34, gave a definite age for separation. The most common age limit for employment was 50 to 54. This limit was set for men by 16 establishments and for women by 14. Thirteen establishments retired woman employees at 60 to 64 years old, and 22 placed the limit for men at 65 to 69. Six reported age limits for men and 10 for women, without specifying what they were. The Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers has seniority regulations by which engineers are retired from the main lines at 70, but may do yard duty longer when qualified for such services.

The custom of transferring older workers to lighter tasks was more general than the fixing of definite ages of hiring and separation. No less than 1,502 employers were attempting this kindly method of adjusting tasks to the failing powers of faithful older workers. Inasmuch as the average expectation of life for 45-year-old workers in industry in 1935 [4] was 23.41 years for men and 26.54 for women, these adjustments should not be necessary before the age of 60, and exceptionally healthy men and women are usually unwilling to admit failing powers before the age of 70.

Further evidence of the desire of many Massachusetts employers to promote stability of employment and old-age protection is given by reports of group insurance and old-age pensions. The favorable terms, combined with educational activities, of the Massachusetts Savings Bank Life Insurance, which has been in operation for 30 years, have resulted in much group insurance. This was carried chiefly in

[4] Data supplied by the statistics department of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.

the large establishments. Thus, although only 27.2 percent of the employers of men were carrying group insurance, 43.2 percent of the male workers were covered, and 37 percent of these men were 45 years old or over. Woman workers had less insurance protection. It was carried in 26.1 percent of the establishments employing 28.6 percent of the women, of whom 13.9 percent were 45 years old and over. Pension systems were reported for only 3 percent of the establishments. They serve their purpose of stabilizing the working force, as 41.6 percent of the men and 19.1 percent of the women in establishments with pensions were 45 years old and over. Thus, the charges made in the public hearings that group insurance and private old-age pensions are sources of discrimination were not verified.

Failure of Older Workers to Share Fully in Business Recovery

COMPLAINTS of refusal of employment to older workers in Massachusetts, and doubtless in many other industrial centers, have been prompted by bitter disappointment felt when experienced men and women, long unemployed, found themselves denied a share in returning prosperity. During the prolonged partial or entire lack of employment of the depression years, they had exhausted their savings and often sacrificed what modest investments they had made during years of regular employment. The more enterprising have been humiliated by the necessity of accepting poorly paid, makeshift jobs, and the less versatile have had the meager support of public relief. Hope revived when there were prospects of renewed activities in their earlier, more skilled occupations, but their eager applications for reemployment were often met by evasions. The speakers at the public hearings told of excuses given to the applicants. The frequency with which it was claimed that the insurance companies objected to older workers indicates that this was a favorite justification of the unwillingness to take them on again. They told also of medical examinations which usually resulted in the discovery of some physical weakness in older applicants. The factors which enter into the discrimination of which the older men and women complain are complex and varied, but some approximation of their values may be obtained by a careful combination of statistical data accumulated in the Massachusetts regular and emergency investigations.

The questionnaire sent to Massachusetts employers asked for reports, by sex and age groups, of persons who entered and left their establishments between January 1, 1934, and October 31, 1935. Some employers had not kept records which made possible the giving of this information without an unreasonable expenditure of time and

secretarial assistance. It is probable, also, that many smaller establishments had no changes in personnel during the 22 months covered. The information about separations was given by 2,012 or 53.2 percent of the establishments employing men, and by 1,464 or 42.5 percent of those with woman workers. The rehirings were even less fully reported, as only a third (32.6 percent) of the employers of men, and a fourth (25.4 percent) of those with woman workers, gave this information. Hiring was more fully covered; 2,501 establishments or two-thirds (66.1 percent) of those with male employees, and 1,907 or over half (55.3 percent) of those with female workers, reported hirings classified by age groups.

Before attempting an appraisal of the extent to which older workers were regaining employment during the period of business recovery, attention should be given to the general economic background which determined their chances of finding work. There were substantial gains in employment in the chief industrial centers of the State during the years covered by the reports from employers (table 3). However, these were not uniform or stable. Thus Fall River had an increase over 1932 in the number employed of 21.7 percent in 1934, but fell 3.3 percent below in 1935. Brockton had a stable gain of 12 to 13 percent, and Boston with its more varied industries added about 10 percent to the numbers on the pay rolls. The increases from 1932 for the entire State were 12.5 percent in 1934 and 15.0 percent in 1935, but the total number employed was still 26 to 27 percent less than the average 10 years before. During this interval large numbers of younger workers entered the labor market to compete with older men and women laid off during the depression. Between 1933 and 1935 the percentage gain in the average number employed was only 6.8 percent, but during the same period the amount paid in wages increased by 12.1 percent. Thus it is evident that part-time workers, or those already employed, were given increases before new employees were hired. The older men and women had some share in these increases, for in January 1934 the percentages of part-time workers 45 years of age and over were 32.2 for men and 17.8 for women.

When interpreting the employers' reports of separations, rehirings, and hirings, allowance must be made for the probability of some multiple counting. During the 22 months covered there was much fluctuation as well as general gains in employment. Thus, in 1934 the percentage variations from the average for 1925–27 ran from 56.5 in September to 73.6 in April, or a range of 17.1 percent. In the period covered in 1935 the monthly averages varied from 67.4 in June to 73.2 in September, or 5.8 percent. It is obvious that during this period of 22 months some workers may have been separated, rehired,

or hired by several employers, or may have reported more than once in regular places of employment.

This seems the more probable because of the high percentage of young persons among those who were changing positions. By far the largest number of separations took place in the restless ages between 20 and 29 when employers were trying out new generations of workers to find those adapted to their needs, when young men were seeking satisfactory permanent positions and young women were making similar adjustments or were exchanging gainful employment for homemaking. Half of the separations reported for women and 37.4 percent of those for men took place among the workers 20 to 29 years old (table 8). The factory workers, both male and female, left their positions most frequently when 20 to 24 years old. No less than 25,863 of these young workers separated from manufacturing establishments during the 22 months for which employers reported. Even the high monthly fluctuation in employment of 1934 can hardly justify this wasteful turn-over. The separations in chain stores also took place chiefly when the workers were 20 to 24 years old, but those in other retail stores occurred most frequently in the 25- to 29-year groups of both men and women. The latter was also the most common age of separation for male employees in private hospitals, insurance companies, hotels, gas and electric companies, and various smaller groups. The most frequent separations of women in restaurants, gas and electric companies, private hospitals, insurance companies, and hotels took place when they were 20 to 24 years old, but they were most often found in the 25 to 29 age group when separated from positions in laundries and telephone and telegraph companies.

Table 8.—Labor Turn-Over in Massachusetts Establishments Reporting, by Sex and Age Groups

Table 8.—Labor Turn-Over in Massachusetts Establishments Reporting, by Sex and Age Groups

Item	Period covered	Number of establishments reporting	All persons reported	In specified age groups											
				15–19 years	20–24 years	25–29 years	30–34 years	35–39 years	40–44 years	45–49 years	50–54 years	55–59 years	60–64 years	65–69 years	70 years and over
			Number												
Total employees	October 1935		608,511	29,808	93,310	89,498	75,506	73,972	70,475	61,026	45,842	31,370	20,721	11,053	5,930
Males	do	3,781	411,497	13,266	47,751	52,108	48,838	50,402	51,841	47,920	38,119	27,158	18,482	10,107	5,505
Females	do	3,446	197,014	16,542	45,559	37,390	26,668	23,570	18,634	13,106	7,723	4,212	2,239	946	425
Total separated [1]	Jan. 1, 1934 Oct. 31, 1935		136,204	11,940	31,851	25,299	17,647	15,200	12,540	8,679	5,773	3,291	1,986	1,135	863
Males	do	2,012	87,148	5,168	17,592	14,983	11,429	10,473	9,339	7,004	4,778	2,828	1,737	1,020	797
Females	do	1,464	49,056	6,772	14,259	10,316	6,218	4,727	3,201	1,675	995	463	249	115	66
Total hired	do		142,465	23,017	39,543	24,135	15,437	13,407	10,764	7,573	4,386	2,376	1,203	478	146
Males	do	2,501	91,114	10,809	23,246	15,770	10,524	9,241	8,021	6,025	3,704	2,127	1,076	439	132
Females	do	1,907	51,351	12,208	16,297	8,365	4,913	4,166	2,743	1,548	682	249	127	39	14
Total rehired	do		61,547	3,832	12,369	11,058	8,640	7,714	6,752	4,896	3,142	1,726	881	370	167
Males	do	1,234	38,411	1,611	6,266	6,479	5,253	4,845	4,590	3,693	2,513	1,506	787	348	160
Females	do	876	23,136	2,221	5,743	4,579	3,387	2,869	2,162	1,203	629	220	94	22	7
			Percent												
Total employees	October 1935		100.0	4.9	15.3	14.7	12.4	12.2	11.6	10.0	7.5	5.2	3.4	1.8	1.0
Males	do	3,781	100.0	3.2	11.6	12.7	11.9	12.2	12.6	11.6	9.3	6.6	4.5	2.5	1.3
Females	do	3,446	100.0	8.4	23.1	19.0	13.5	12.0	9.5	6.7	3.9	2.1	1.1	.5	.2
Total separated [1]	Jan. 1, 1934– Oct. 31, 1935		100.0	8.8	23.4	18.6	13.0	11.2	9.2	6.3	4.2	2.4	1.5	.8	.6
Males	do	2,012	100.0	5.9	20.2	17.2	13.1	12.0	10.7	8.0	5.5	3.2	2.0	1.2	1.0
Females	do	1,464	100.0	13.8	29.1	21.0	12.7	9.6	6.5	3.4	2.0	1.0	.5	.3	.1
Total hired	do		100.0	16.2	27.7	17.0	10.8	9.4	7.5	5.3	3.1	1.7	.9	.3	.1
Males	do	2,501	100.0	11.9	25.5	17.3	11.6	10.1	8.8	6.6	4.1	2.3	1.2	.5	.1
Females	do	1,907	100.0	23.8	31.7	16.3	9.6	8.1	5.3	3.0	1.3	.5	.3	.1	.0
Total rehired	do		100.0	6.2	20.1	17.9	14.0	12.6	11.0	8.0	5.1	2.8	1.5	.6	.2
Males	do	1,234	100.0	4.2	17.3	16.9	13.7	12.6	11.9	9.6	6.6	3.9	2.0	.9	.4
Females	do	876	100.0	9.6	24.8	19.8	14.6	12.4	9.4	5.2	2.7	1.0	.4	.1	.0

[1] Includes resignations, dismissals, retirements on pension, and separations on account of death.

Massachusetts employers showed no inclination to part with those older workers who had been retained during the depression. With the exception of the contractors, who reported a somewhat larger number of separations in the 30 to 34 age group, no occupations had maximum separations in age groups above 30. Separations, as reported in the questionnaire, included resignations, dismissals, retirements on pensions, and deaths, so that varied factors influenced the separation of workers 45 years of age and older, yet these changes were proportionally less than those of the employable persons from about the age of 37 for men and 35 for women (chart II). Comparison of the percentages of separated persons 45 years of age and over with those of the same ages employed indicates that in a total of 64 factory groups engaged in varied forms of production, only 5 had higher percentages of separations, and in 3 of these the numbers 1 to 5 were too small to give significance to the percentages. When the age of 45 is reached men may still leave their employment with hopes of finding new positions, but women realize that they must cling to whatever foothold they have obtained, because they have but little chance of reemployment. Thus 20.8 percent of the separations of men and only 7.3 percent of those of women took place after the age of 45 (table 8).

The rehirings, like the separations, reflect the fluctuations in employment during the period of transition from extreme depression to improved business conditions. Manufacturing establishments, chiefly those with large working forces, reported 95 percent of the rehirings of both men and women. Evidently the rehirings represented largely the reentry of former employees into the factories when new orders were obtained, because percentages of rehiring follow closely those of separations. A comparison of the two series gives insight into the processes by which the less competent workers are sifted out of the regular working forces. The rehirings, like the separations, occurred chiefly in the younger age groups, but the percentages prior to the age of 30 were slightly less than those of the separations. Experience gives some advantage to men between the ages of 30 and 60 and to women between 30 and 55, for in these age groups the percentages of rehiring were slightly greater than those of separations (table 8).

After the two upper age limits have been reached there is an increasing unwillingness to rehire the older men and women. Beginning at the age of 45, the chances of reemployment in the factories in the State are less than 1 in 4 for men and 1 in 10 for women. One in 3 of the factories employing men and 3 in 5 of those with woman workers reported that during the 22 weeks of business recovery covered, no men or women 45 years old or over had been rehired. The deadline for rehiring was drawn even more drastically in establishments other than factories. Over 2 in 5 (42.2 percent) reported that they had rehired no men 45 years of age and over and 68 percent no women.

Yet in January 1934, when these reports began, one-fourth of the employable men and one-fifth of the working women between the ages of 45 and 65 were either totally without work, or were engaged in temporary public or private makeshift jobs. The depression variations in employment have made possible the rapid elimination of older

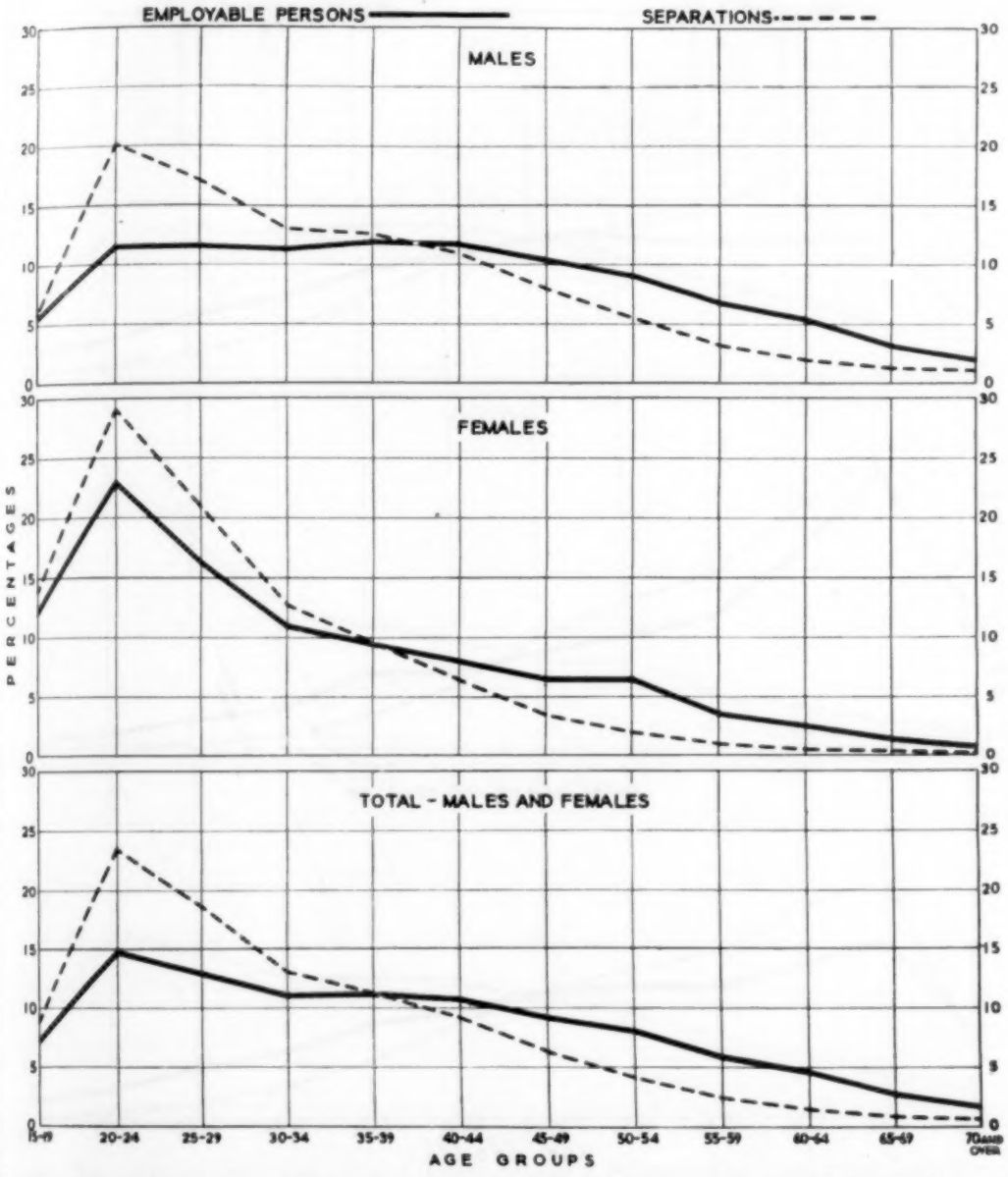


CHART II.—DISTRIBUTION OF ALL EMPLOYABLE PERSONS IN THE POPULATION OF MASSACHUSETTS AND SEPARATIONS FROM THE SERVICE IN 3,781 ESTABLISHMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS.

workers by this policy of selective rehiring from the great army of cheaper, younger workers, after the frequent lay-offs or shut-downs made necessary by fluctuating markets.

Age discrimination in hiring is evident at an earlier age than in rehiring. A rough estimate of the age when this begins may be made by an examination of charts III and IV. The points where the lines showing the percentage distributions of hiring and rehiring cross the line of percentage distribution of employable persons may be

regarded as those where discrimination because of age begins. Evidently employers prefer to hire males under 30 and females under 25 years of age. Over half (54.7 percent of the men and 55.5 percent of the women) of the hirings reported were of persons below these age limits. Under normal business conditions special skill would be

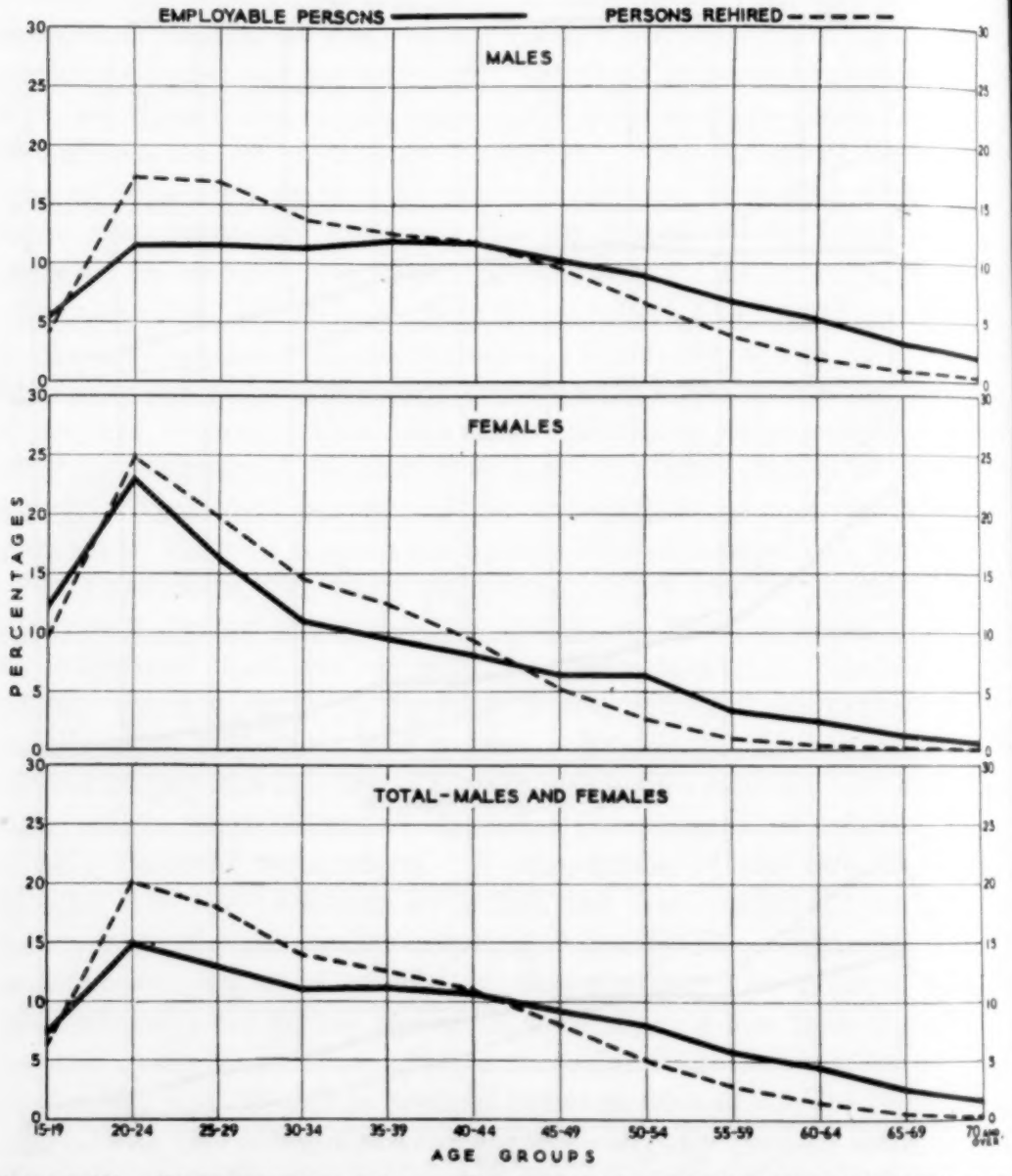


CHART III.—DISTRIBUTION OF ALL EMPLOYABLE PERSONS IN THE POPULATION OF MASSACHUSETTS AND PERSONS RE-HIRED IN 3,781 ESTABLISHMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS.

acquired and permanent connections established by the time these ages are reached.

When, as during the recovery from the depression, many older workers must establish new connections, there is rapidly increasing difficulty in finding openings; this is particularly true of the woman workers. Thus the percentage of hiring for men dropped from 25.5 for those 24 to 29 years old to 10.1 in the age group 35 to 39. The difference for women is even greater—31.7 to 8.1 in this 10-year

interval. After the age of 45 is passed, only those who have acquired special skill not easily developed by younger rivals can hope for employment. Thus, only 5 percent of the hirings of women and 15 percent of those of men took place in these age groups, in which, however, 20 percent of the employable women and 36 percent of the

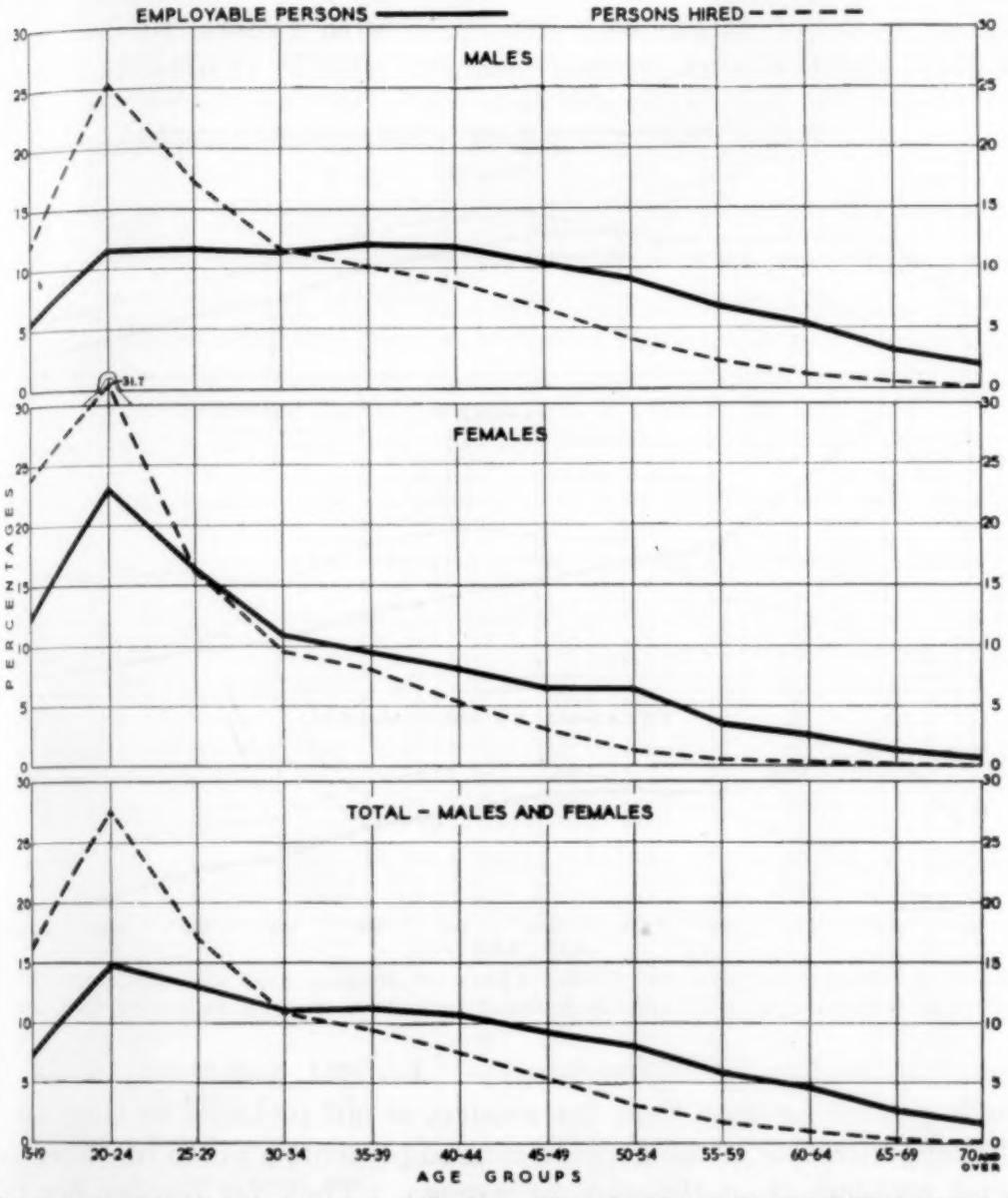


CHART IV.—DISTRIBUTION OF ALL EMPLOYABLE PERSONS IN THE POPULATION OF MASSACHUSETTS AND PERSONS HIRED IN 3,781 ESTABLISHMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS.

men were found. In 7 of the 15 most important industrial centers of the State, more than 2 in every 5 of the workers were unemployed in 1932. In January 1934, when the records for the present investigation began, 20.7 to 25.0 percent of the men between 25 and 45 years of age and 22.8 to 31.2 percent of those 45 and over were unemployed. The range for women was 13.7 percent to 16.7 percent under 45 and 19 percent to 21.7 percent 45 years of age and over (table 1). A comparison of these figures with those of hirings makes it evident

that public support for a large number of wage earners will be required long before the age of 65 is reached, when the necessaries of life will be provided by the social security legislation.

At the present time these large groups of men and women who fail to find places in our economic system gain the bare necessaries of life by grants from public welfare officials or by part-time employment in varied forms of public work subsidized with Federal funds. Chart V gives a picture of the former means of relief in 12 important manu-

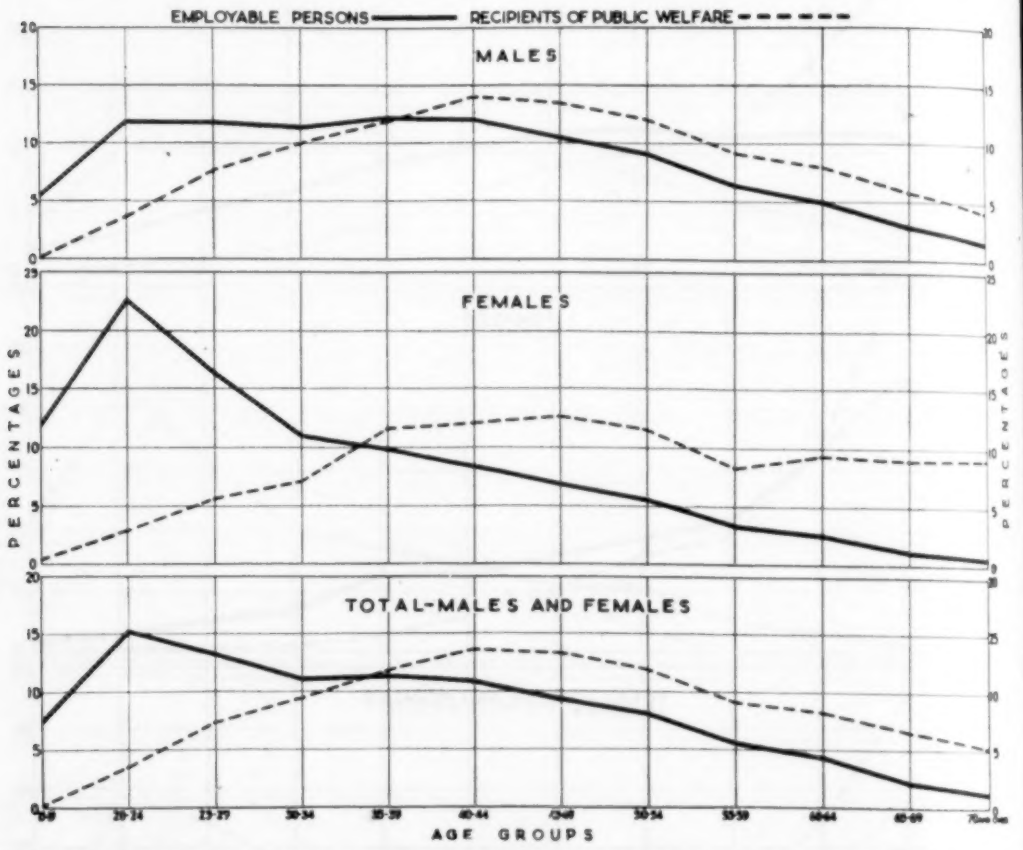


CHART V.—DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYABLE PERSONS AND OF RECIPIENTS OF PUBLIC WELFARE IN 12 CITIES IN MASSACHUSETTS, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS.

facturing centers of Massachusetts. Federal assistance, which is much greater for men than for women, is not pictured in this chart. The rehabilitation of the dependent men presents a much more serious social problem than the care of women. They far outnumber the women receiving relief, and a higher proportion who need work are still unemployed. Thus in the 12 industrial cities studied there were 35,964 men and only 8,829 women receiving public welfare support. As has been shown in this investigation, those 45 years old and over find the greatest difficulty in obtaining employment. There were 18,935 men in these upper age groups compared with 5,291 women, but nearly one-half of the men (47.4 percent) compared with two-fifths (40.1 percent) of the women were in need of this assistance before reaching the 45-year deadline. No doubt this was due to their larger burden of family dependents.

An extensive campaign of vocational guidance and reeducation will be required to restore these men and women to self-support. A comparison of table 6, showing men over 45 years old employed in Massachusetts manufacturing establishments, with table 9, giving percentages hired in the same industries, shows that the older workers hold their positions and are hired in the more skilled occupations. The men now on relief are largely unskilled factory workers who have been unemployed for long periods of time. The duration of their unemployment in January 1934 is shown in table 10. Three-fourths had been without work for a year or more, and high percentages had been unemployed for 3 or 4 years. By January 1937, 3 years had been added to the periods of unemployment of a high proportion of these men. Employers are justified in their fears that, during these prolonged periods of idleness, many have acquired loafing habits, depressed emotional and mental outlooks, and undermined physiques.

Table 9.—Men and Women 45 Years Old and Over Hired by Massachusetts Manufacturing Establishments, Jan. 1, 1934, to Oct. 31, 1935

Industry [1]	Establishments reporting hiring of—		Number of persons hired			Persons hired when 45 years old and over			
						Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
All manufacturing industries	1,945	1,458	118,595	77,761	40,834	11,967	2,228	15.4	5.5
Boot and shoe cut stock	32	19	359	268	91	80	5	30.0	5.5
Boots and shoes	116	111	8,799	5,000	3,799	1,277	469	25.5	12.3
Jewelry	28	16	1,404	999	405	238	45	23.8	11.1
Lithographing	5	4	194	120	74	27	1	22.5	1.4
Machine tools	11	6	632	588	44	129	------	21.9	------
Cotton goods	55	55	7,041	4,332	2,709	927	240	21.4	8.9
Woolen goods	35	32	9,010	6,876	2,134	1,442	207	21.0	9.7
Furniture	58	33	1,802	1,602	200	326	38	20.3	19.0
Liquors, malt	7	6	622	589	33	119	1	20.2	3.0
Boot and shoe findings	46	40	1,110	698	412	139	15	19.9	3.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus	13	11	541	483	58	95	------	19.7	------
Foundry and machine-shop products	119	38	3,724	3,518	206	670	8	19.0	3.9
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	43	26	2,327	2,022	305	371	23	18.3	7.5
Cutlery and edge tools	17	8	356	229	127	42	------	18.3	------
Motor vehicles	3	1	203	202	1	37	------	18.3	------
Clothing, women's	50	57	3,409	324	3,085	59	112	18.2	3.6
Tools	9	5	392	388	4	68	------	17.5	------
Worsted goods	28	28	7,162	4,423	2,739	767	202	17.3	7.4
Textile machinery and parts	32	15	819	772	47	131	2	17.0	4.3
Cotton small wares	19	20	588	327	261	52	15	16.0	5.7
Linen goods	3	3	376	119	257	19	8	16.0	3.1
Stationery goods	5	5	139	75	64	12	3	16.0	4.7
Ship and boat building, steel and wooden	8	6	6,333	6,249	84	986	2	15.8	2.4
Screw-machine products	11	7	560	473	87	74	------	15.6	------
Knit goods	33	36	1,841	474	1,367	73	85	15.4	6.2
Printing and publishing, book and job	61	40	1,245	730	515	109	32	14.9	6.2
Nonferrous-metal alloys and products	11	6	309	277	32	41	2	14.8	6.3
Silverware and plated ware	8	7	109	68	41	10	2	14.7	4.9
Forgings, iron and steel	4	1	298	293	5	42	------	14.3	------
Stamped and pressed metal products	16	10	564	366	198	52	2	14.2	1.0
Clothing, men's	25	34	1,234	219	1,015	31	77	14.2	7.6
Boots and shoes, rubber	3	3	1,480	624	856	87	49	13.9	5.7
Envelopes	11	11	424	173	251	24	8	13.9	3.2
Confectionery	22	23	2,100	463	1,637	63	42	13.6	2.6
Wirework, not elsewhere classified	9	6	154	97	57	13	------	13.4	------
Silk and rayon goods	18	16	1,585	845	740	112	41	13.3	5.5
Abrasive wheels	8	5	666	495	*171	65	8	13.1	4.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles	36	30	3,245	2,639	606	338	35	12.8	5.8
Machine tool accessories	13	7	344	294	50	37	------	12.6	------
Clocks and watches	7	5	1,355	814	541	102	10	12.5	1.8
Carpets and rugs, wool	5	4	471	311	160	39	7	12.5	4.4
Carriages and sleds, children's	7	8	849	678	171	82	9	12.1	5.3
Paper and wood pulp	41	28	1,291	941	350	111	35	11.8	10.0
Wire drawn from purchased rods	10	8	639	603	36	68	3	11.3	8.3

[1] Arranged in the order of percentages of men 45 years old and over hired.

Table 9.—Men and Women 45 Years Old and Over Hired by Massachusetts Manufacturing Establishments, Jan. 1, 1934, to Oct. 31, 1935—Continued

Industry	Establishments reporting hiring of—		Number of persons hired			Persons hired when 45 years old and over			
						Number		Percent	
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rubber goods, other than boots and shoes	24	20	2,488	1,701	787	189	19	11.1	2.4
Soap	5	3	699	584	115	59	1	10.1	.9
Motor-vehicle bodies and parts	8	3	465	374	91	36	1	9.6	1.1
Clothing, work, men's	12	14	199	53	146	5	7	9.4	4.8
Printing and publishing, newspapers and periodicals	31	25	536	427	109	40	4	9.4	3.7
Miscellaneous articles	10	9	769	304	465	28	5	9.2	1.1
Furnishing goods, men's	7	9	345	22	323	2	2	9.1	.6
Paper goods	23	17	1,036	584	452	53	7	9.1	1.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	39	35	5,208	3,003	2,205	266	7	8.9	.3
Bookbinding and blank-book making	19	20	277	143	134	12	8	8.4	6.0
Sugar refining	2	2	511	447	64	36	1	8.1	1.6
Optical goods	7	8	841	529	312	43	3	8.1	1.0
Toys, games, and playground equipment	8	7	1,128	690	438	55	23	8.0	5.3
Sporting and athletic goods	5	6	267	153	114	10	3	6.5	2.6
Druggists' preparations	5	6	441	245	196	15	7	6.1	3.6
Bread and other bakery products	79	57	3,218	2,317	901	141	35	6.1	3.9
Housefurnishing goods	20	23	731	183	548	11	14	6.0	2.6
Meat packing, wholesale	14	9	1,035	904	131	54	-------	6.0	-------
Shirts, men	5	6	1,076	70	1,006	4	68	5.7	6.8
Petroleum refining	5	5	734	640	94	35	-------	5.5	-------
Boxes, paper	38	37	1,513	798	715	43	47	5.4	6.6
Chemicals	4	4	814	648	166	35	-------	5.4	-------
Chocolate and cocoa products	4	4	669	370	299	19	3	5.1	1.0
Pocketbooks, purses, etc	5	5	444	121	323	6	3	5.0	.9
Stoves and ranges and warm-air furnaces	8	4	908	875	33	37	-------	4.2	-------
Cordage and twine	7	7	332	171	161	6	8	3.5	5.0
Radio apparatus	4	3	1,478	420	1,058	9	3	2.1	.3
All other manufacturers	446	270	12,328	8,905	3,423	1,132	106	12.7	3.0

Table 10.—Duration of Unemployment, January 1934, of Men in Massachusetts 45 to 64 Years Old [1]

Period of unemployment	Percent unemployed in age group—			
	45 to 49 years	50 to 54 years	55 to 59 years	60 to 64 years
48 months and over	17.3	19.8	23.8	26.3
36 and under 48 months	18.7	19.8	19.2	20.0
24 and under 36 months	22.6	22.5	21.2	21.6
12 and under 24 months	14.6	14.0	13.5	11.9
Total, 1 year and over	73.6	76.1	77.8	79.8

[1] Data from Census of Unemployment in Massachusetts as of Jan. 2, 1934.

The labor market is now well supplied with ambitious young people who have been kept in school longer than in predepression days and who are now crowding into every opening which offers an opportunity to win those things which give values to life. The existence of discrimination in employment against older workers in Massachusetts was fully established by this investigation. The discovery and application of remedies present social and economic problems as complex and urgent as any which now confront the legislators, social workers, employers, educators, and public officials of the State, all of whom must cooperate in the difficult task of restoring thousands of intelligent, able-bodied men and women to normal self-support and self-respect.

Housing Under the Resettlement Administration [1]

OF THE 97 housing projects undertaken by the Resettlement Administration 29 had been completed and 68 were under construction in April 1937. This total includes 33 developments initiated by the former Subsistence Homesteads Division of the Department of the Interior, 25 by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, and 36 projects originating with the Resettlement Administration. The type of housing program provided has varied with the needs and capabilities of the families to be resettled, so that at completion there will be 30 rural industrial communities where low-income families will have small plots for subsistence farming to supplement their industrial income; 32 agricultural communities where families are expected to derive their entire income from farming and allied cooperative activities; 32 "infiltration" projects where families are set up on individual farms and are dependent on existing communities for educational and social facilities; and 3 suburban towns established near cities where a shortage in low-cost housing exists. In the spring of 1937 progress in completing projects made it possible for residents to move in at the rate of 1,000 persons per month. At least some families were occupying 60 projects in 31 States.

The objectives of the Resettlement Administration go beyond furnishing adequate housing at a reasonable price. In relocating rural families, houses of modest size, good arrangement, and with modern conveniences have been located where the land is productive and where work opportunities either exist or can be supplied. The aim is to place farm or subsistence-homestead houses in locations convenient to farm buildings and with easy access to shops, schools, and social facilities. In addition to bettering the economic and social status of the resettled families, these projects are expected to serve as a demonstration of what might be accomplished on a wide scale if planning for rural workers were adopted generally.

In establishing the three suburban communities, known as greenbelt towns, outside of Washington, D. C., Cincinnati, Ohio, and Milwaukee, Wis., the Resettlement Administration is again serving a twofold purpose—making housing available where a shortage exists, and demonstrating the possibilities, for low-income urban workers, of living in pleasant suburban surroundings. These towns are to be self-contained as regards educational, recreational, social, and shopping facilities. Heads of families will work at their regular pursuits in the city.

[1] Data are from publications and records of the Resettlement Administration and material supplied directly by the Information Division of the Administration.

Management and Financial Arrangements

THE housing program of the Resettlement Administration is only one phase of its larger duties, such as encouraging the removal of submarginal farm land from agricultural use and shifting families from land definitely unsuited for agriculture. This pioneer housing work has now progressed to such a point that it may be partially evaluated in terms of management, financing, the position of the families resettled, and the extent to which the costs will be self-liquidated.

Management.—Rural resettlement communities will ultimately be owned by the occupants of the individual farms and homesteads in most cases. In the period between completion and conveyance to private ownership, they are placed under the Management Division of the Administration, whose duties include tenant selection and maintenance of properties. As fast as projects are completed the Administration expects to turn them over to local management. The plan adopted is designed to place the properties on the local tax rolls, while at the same time protecting the large equity of the Federal Government. Therefore, upon completion, the communities are conveyed to nonprofit associations whose duties include responsibility for supervision of the communities and collection of payments due from the residents.

The nonprofit association is established in conformity with the laws of the particular State where the land is located. Membership in the association is extended to the residents of the projects, with three local residents and two Resettlement Administration representatives as incorporators. This incorporated body takes title to the property when all work has been completed and the terms of sale approved. With the conveyance of the community to a local corporation it becomes subject to local taxation, as the right to exemption from taxes for Federal-owned property is automatically forfeited.

The same procedure will be followed in conveying suburban resettlement projects to nonprofit corporations. In these communities the Government will retain a financial interest for a considerably longer period than in rural projects, as the individual properties will be rented to tenants instead of sold, thus lengthening the amortization period for the corporations taking title to the communities.

Financing.—Resettlement Administration communities are financed wholly by the Federal Government. The selling price of farms on completion is calculated on the basis of a careful consideration of the project cost, appraisal value, and ability of the residents to pay. On the first 12 subsistence projects turned over to local management, the write-off (i. e. difference between cost and sales price) may run as high as 25 percent.[2] In April the write-off amounted to somewhat

[2] This will be a considerably lower proportionate grant of total costs than has been allowed for P. W. A. slum-clearance projects, where the amounts allotted may be as much as 45 percent of total costs. The higher percentage of subsidy for city dwellings is necessitated in part by the fact that high-priced land is being bought.

over 16 percent and the additions will depend on final costs of such items as roads. The balance, after making such deductions, represents the price to the respective purchasing associations. Whatever the net price, the terms of sale to resident purchasers provide for a 40-year amortization period with interest charges at 3 percent per annum. Those renting dwellings in the suburban towns will pay sums sufficient to meet all current expenses, carrying charges, and capital payments, together with 3 percent interest that will enable the appropriate association to meet its payments to the Federal Government on whatever basis of amortization is decided upon (for example, 60 years).

If families take possession of homesteads before completion of a project or settlement of terms of sale between the Government and the local association, they do so under temporary agreements based on as careful estimates as possible of the charges that will be made. Occupancy does not bind the Government to offer the tenant a permanent contract of sale, which is tendered only if the homesteader has conducted himself in such a way as to qualify him for permanent residence. However, if he remains, due allowance is made for the amount of prior payments when permanent sales contracts are issued. Interest is amortized so that the resident from year to year pays only on the remaining unpaid balance. Should he wish to make advance payments he may do so up to 39 annual payments on a 40-year contract purchase plan, thereby reducing interest charges, but amounts due for the fortieth year may not be paid in advance. This restriction is imposed as a precaution against speculative profits or mortgaging property with the possibility of losing it, and as a protection to the Government throughout the amortization period. The purchaser receives his deed at the time the last payment is made.

If he should wish to be released from the contract of purchase prior to the time of obtaining full ownership, two courses are open to him. The association may purchase his equity—that is, the principal amount paid, including payments made under a temporary agreement plus the value of any improvements that the owner has made with the consent of the Government and subtracting any depreciation that may have resulted from use of the property by the purchaser or from his failure to maintain it in good condition and repair.

The property may also be sold to an individual purchaser, provided the purchaser and the terms of sale are approved by the Government. In this way speculation is prevented and homesteaders are assured of desirable neighbors.

If the homesteader dies before securing full ownership of his land and dwelling, his family is free to remain in residence as long as payments are kept up and the land is worked. If it is found desirable to move, the same measures to terminate the purchase contract are open to the family as have been described for the original purchaser.

All financial arrangements are made between the housing association and residents. Payments made include, in addition to the amortization charges, such items as taxes, maintenance, insurance, and management. A special maintenance reserve fund must be built up by each homesteader to take care of needed repairs, thus insuring the Government against any loss from poorly maintained individual holdings. The system adopted is that each owner makes a deposit of $2.50 per month until he has in his maintenance reserve account a total of $150, in addition to other payments. He makes no further deposits in this special account until it is drawn upon for necessary repairs and replacements. After such withdrawals payments are resumed at $2.50 monthly until the reserve is again $150.

Data assembled to show the status of payments on 35 projects as of April 1937 show that occupied properties were 93.1 percent up to date on monthly levies for all purposes. The Resettlement Administration concludes from this showing that: "This is a strong indication that the tenants recognize their obligations and will be able to meet them."

Typical Projects

A MORE detailed description of three communities which exemplify the three major types of projects, where housing plays an important part, is given in the following pages. In these communities, also, the Administration has had the advantages of its accumulated experience. These are: Penderlea, N. C., a farm community where agriculture is the major employment of homesteaders; Longview, Wash., a subsistence-homestead colony established for low-income lumber-products millworkers; and Greenbelt, Md., near Washington, D. C., a suburban resettlement project where city workers may enjoy the amenities of suburban life at reasonable cost, while at the same time continuing in their city employment.

Penderlea Homesteads.—Construction of 142 houses for farm homesteaders at Penderlea, N. C., was completed by May 1, 1936. This project is situated in a fertile belt suitable for growing strawberries, bulbs, figs, cucumbers, and all the winter truck crops. In addition cotton and cover crops for livestock feed may be raised. The probability is that three to four truck crops per year will be produced. The project is in Pender County, 8 miles north of Burgaw, the county seat, and 40 miles north of Wilmington. The original site consists of 4,550 acres purchased at an average price of $7.10 per acre. The average farm size is 20 acres, this having been found the most desirable unit for farming, on the basis of existing practices of the section, as determined by a study made at the Farm Management Experiment Station at North Carolina State College. Each farm is expected to yield an ample return for the liquidation of the investment and the satisfactory support of the family. The number of homesteads is being con-

siderably extended, the tract having been increased to provide 250 farms.

The Resettlement Administration describes Penderlea Homesteads as attractive in appearance and providing the practical living arrangements required by American standards. Each farm consists of a house, chicken house with fenced-in chicken run, a barn, a movable hog house, and a pump house. The houses are painted white with green shutters and roofs. They are one-story, four-, five-, and six-room dwellings of frame drop-siding construction, mounted on brick piers with termite taps, and with copper flashings and gutters. Roofs are creosoted, ceilings are of celotex, walls of 6- to 8-inch tongue-and-groove pine boards, and floors of scraped and oiled pine. Every house is equipped with a complete bathroom; built-in bathroom and

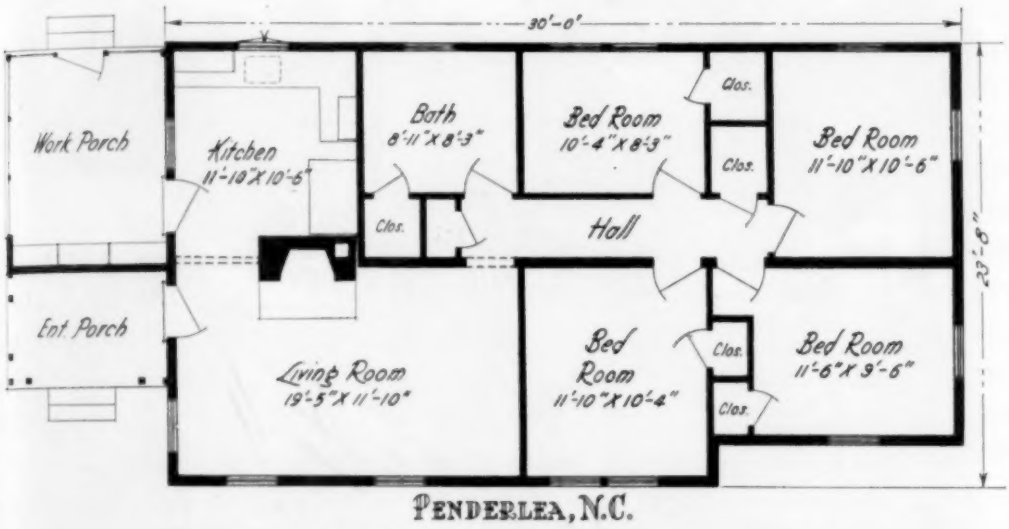


FIGURE 1.—FLOOR PLAN OF A TYPICAL HOMESTEAD.

kitchen cabinets; a sewage system consisting of a septic tank and drain field; a water system with well, electric pump, pressure tank, and hot-water tank; fireplace; and screened porch. All houses have simple but complete electric and plumbing fixtures. The farm land has been cleared in every instance and shrubs and lawns planted. Roads have been so planned and constructed that each farm has direct access to the community center. Livestock, operating equipment, and other necessary materials and supplies were provided, and the newly settled farmers were therefore ready to begin operations as soon as they moved into their new quarters.

The plans for Penderlea take into consideration not only the livelihood of residents but the education of the children and the social life of the resident families. Before the site was developed an agreement was reached with the county school authorities to provide a consolidated school for the township in the community, with the understanding that children from the surrounding sections as well as from the project would attend. This, it was believed, would integrate the new and existing communities. The school authorities have agreed to

provide a curriculum conforming with advanced educational practice and to include a home economics and an agricultural teacher on the school staff. Plans are approved for a centrally located community center. Recreational space has been reserved to the extent of 136 acres in the community center proper and 25.9 acres in the adjoining park.

Families were chosen from among farmers of North Carolina and nearby States on the basis of need and capacity. Many residents of this area had failed to secure even a minimum standard of living from

FIGURE 2.—A PENDERLEA, N. C., FARM.

working the land, owing to forces beyond their control, such as worn-out soils on submarginal land. Those selected included families living on submarginal land purchased by the Resettlement Administration, tenant farmers, rehabilitation clients who had been under the care of the Administration, and young married people having an aptitude for and desiring to do agricultural work. To qualify for a farm, families were required to have the recommendation of their county farm agent and to undergo physical examination to determine their fitness for farm operation.

As Penderlea has not yet been conveyed to local ownership it is not possible to give information on costs, amortization payments, and other financial arrangements. With respect to crop income it is also too early to obtain a statement, since homesteaders were employed in 1936 on clearing the land preparatory to taking up their regular agricultural work. The results of land clearance by resident labor are considered satisfactory, as the cost was kept down to $40 per acre.

Longview Homesteads.—Longview Homesteads was planned to give low-income industrially employed workers who have an interest in small-scale subsistence gardening an opportunity to combine both pursuits. The project consists of 60 houses, each with 1.44 to 3.78 acres of land and averaging 2.11 acres per plot. All of the homesteads were completed and occupied by November 16, 1935. The site consists of 141 acres forming part of a low flood-plain area, where a dyke, drainage system, and pumping plant are maintained. It is located in Cowlitz County, Wash., 3 miles west of the business district of Longview, with the corporate limits of the city bisecting the homestead tract. Kelso, the county seat, lies east of the project. By means of the crops grown in leisure time the occupant families have been enabled to raise their standard of living to an appreciable extent, supplementing their regular income from industrial employment.

A house, combination cow barn and poultry house, and a garage have been built for each homesteader. Project roads have been laid on 14 acres of the site. There are 40 houses of 4 rooms, 8 of 5 rooms, and 12 of 6 rooms. The five- and six-room dwellings have two stories. No two houses are alike, as eight different designs have been employed and they have also been varied by use of different paint colors and position on the lots. Frame construction with shingled roofs and concrete foundations has been used. Many houses have roofed-over porches connecting with the garages. The combination cow sheds and poultry houses are built on skids to permit moving about, thus following the best scientific practice, whereby the poultry is saved from diseases resulting where runs are maintained in the same position over long periods of time. Each property was landscaped as a part of the original cost, and fruit trees and berries were planted. Water is supplied from city mains. Sewage disposal is taken care of by individual septic tanks. Electricity is supplied by the local power company, and telephone connection is available if desired by owners.

As the project is really a part of a larger community it has not been necessary to supply educational and recreational facilities especially for the residents. The county and city schools have ample accommodation for the homesteaders' children. An elementary school of the first six grades is located within a mile of the site, and junior and senior high school pupils are transported to Longview by free county bus. Night classes in agricultural problems and advice on livestock are given for the homesteaders by an instructor on agricultural problems attached to the Longview High School. Recreational facilities of the city include an athletic field, modern city library, city lake, and park. The majority of the residents of the project are lumber-company employees and have access to the free medical care furnished by the mills for workers and their families.

Choice of residents for the Longview Homesteads was made from fully employed workers, principally engaged in the forest-products

industries of the adjoining city where lumber is milled and pulp and fiber made. With one exception the heads of families ranged in age

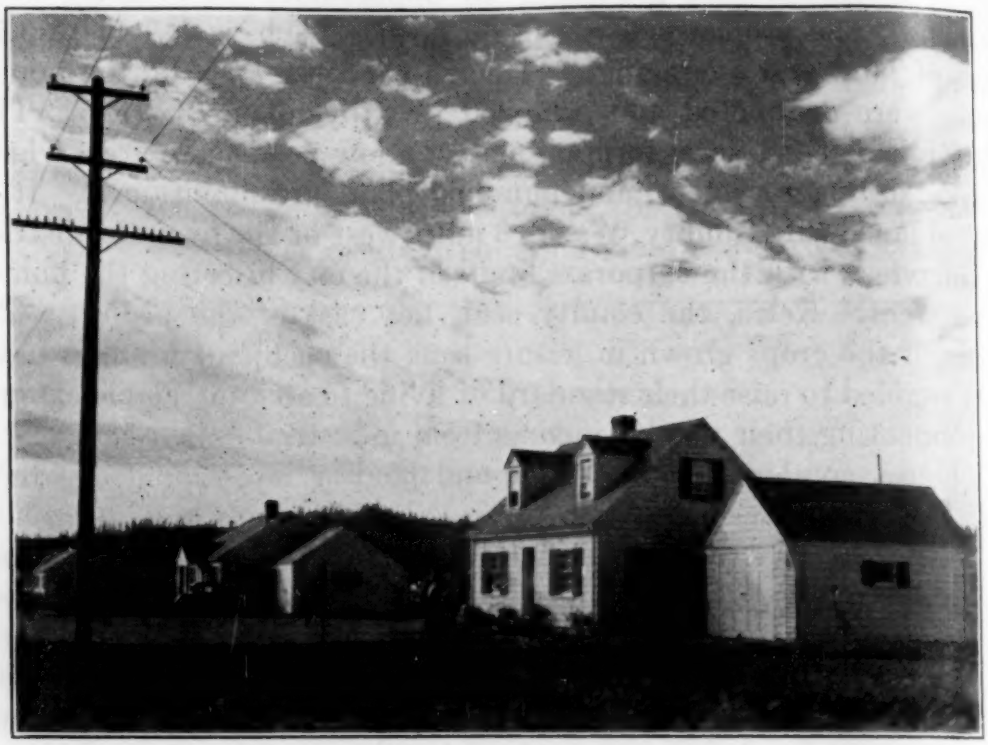


FIGURE 3.—LONGVIEW, WASH., HOMESTEADS.

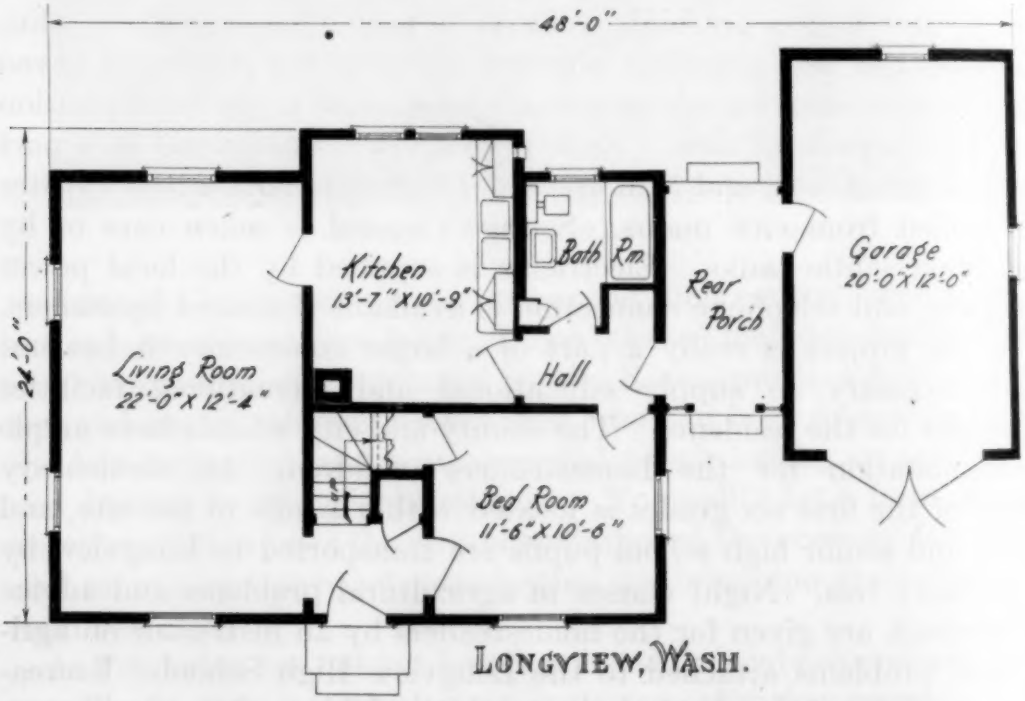


FIGURE 4.—FLOOR PLAN OF TYPICAL SMALL HOUSE.

from 21 to 46 years. The majority are native-born Americans. In all, there are 251 persons in occupancy, and the average size of family is slightly over 4.25.

Gross costs of the project to the Federal Government totaled $185,490, and the net amount due from the local corporation as written into the contract was placed at $174,900. The write-off in conveying the property to the corporation was $2,215. In addition, roads and waterworks were given to the county. These items taken together account for the small difference between gross cost and net price, that is, $10,590. The average cost per house in this project was $2,915.

The residents occupied their homes under a temporary agreement, before the local association took the property over, and paid an average monthly rental of $14.40. The permanent contract provides an average monthly payment amounting to $17.65. Of this sum the Government receives $10.43 monthly and the remainder is distributed as follows: $2.32 for supervisory expenses and reserve against contingencies, $1.05 for insurance, $1.35 for taxes, and $2.50 for individual maintenance reserve. This represents less than 25 percent of the average annual income of homesteaders and satisfies the requirements of a balanced family budget, based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics' estimates of capacity to pay.

Only homesteaders who earned $1,200 or less in 1935 were selected for occupancy. The lower limit of earnings was $700. It is likely that annual earnings in 1936 exceeded this figure, as the hourly rate was increased by 5 percent on April 15. This addition to wages was especially opportune as it helped families to make up the deficit incurred in moving into their new dwellings.

A local Longview newspaper estimated[3] at the end of the first crop year that residents of the project averaged a return of $308 in food products consumed and an additional $247 from sale of foodstuffs. No official estimates have as yet been issued on this point, but scattered reports covering returns to individuals show extremely favorable results. For example, 1 homesteader's crop yielded 100 dozen ears of corn for sale, after filling current family requirements and canning 75 quarts of corn for later use.

Dairy products have yielded particularly good returns. The latest information available on this point shows that 50 out of 60 homesteaders had cows. One resident calculates that milk, butter, and cream supplied by one cow meet half the expense of the homestead as follows:

Monthly return:	*Value*
Milk for table use and sold, 180 quarts at $0.10 per quart	$18.00
Butter, 16 pounds at $0.35 per pound	5.60
Cream, 18 quarts at $0.40 per quart	7.20
Skimmed milk for cheese	2.00
Gross total	32.80
Less expenses	7.83
Net total	24.97

[3] Longview, Wash., Daily News, issue of Oct. 26, 1935.

Those who have not attained such outstanding success have milk and cream for home use and such revenue as they secure helps to cover the cost of cattle feed and poultry feed.

In addition to the direct revenue-producing features of subsistence homesteading from sales of foods, it is important to note that families are securing a higher proportion of such nutritious foods as milk products, fresh fruit, and vegetables than would be likely on a restricted income. They are learning the best practices for food preservation and canning a variety of surplus crops. The Longview Homesteads group had the distinction of growing the best potatoes in the region in 1936. Interest in good crops has been stimulated by harvest displays and 4–H Club exhibits. In this way young and old are brought into cooperation to raise crop standards.

The Administration believes there is every likelihood that 1937 will bring greater returns than those of the previous crop year. In most cases the homesteaders have now bought and paid for their cows, poultry, and adequate tools. They have found from last year's experience where the time that can be expended on outside work will be most productive and what products can be most economically preserved for future use.

Greenbelt, Md.—In the suburban town at Greenbelt, Md., the Resettlement Administration demonstrates the feasibility of establishing a rural-industrial community on the outskirts of a badly crowded city and the ultimate advantages to be derived from comprehensive city planning. This self-contained residential area is within easy distance of Washington, D. C., either by automobile or bus. It has one point in common with Penderlea Homesteads, namely, that it is provided with recreational, educational, and shopping facilities. In another respect it has greater similarity to Longview Homesteads, as the occupants will derive their living from employment outside the project. While Greenbelt residents may have gardens, if they wish them, raising crops is not required of tenants as it is on the other two projects, except on the farm lands that are being established on the periphery of the town for rental. Another major point of difference between the suburban town and the subsistence or farm homestead is that properties will be rented to occupants rather than sold. However, the entire town of Greenbelt will eventually pass out of Federal ownership and be held by a specially incorporated managerial association which will continue to hold the property.

Housing has been provided for 1,000 families on a 4,477-acre site, costing on an average $97 per acre, adjoining a large tract held by the Federal Government for experimental work in agriculture, forestry, and soil conservation. Adequate space is available for future additions to the number of dwellings. A special advantage of the Greenbelt plan is a 23-acre recreational lake in the center of the property

where residents may enjoy various water sports. Houses have been laid out on a curved ridge encircling the community buildings and recreational facilities. The road system is designed for the greatest economy, following the lines of the ridge and creating large superblocks for residences. Paths as well as roads lead to the town center and to the recreational fields adjoining the lake. On the outskirts allotment gardens are provided, and still farther away are the small farms for rental that have already been mentioned. Greenbelt is located near a through highway but not on it, so that traffic hazards

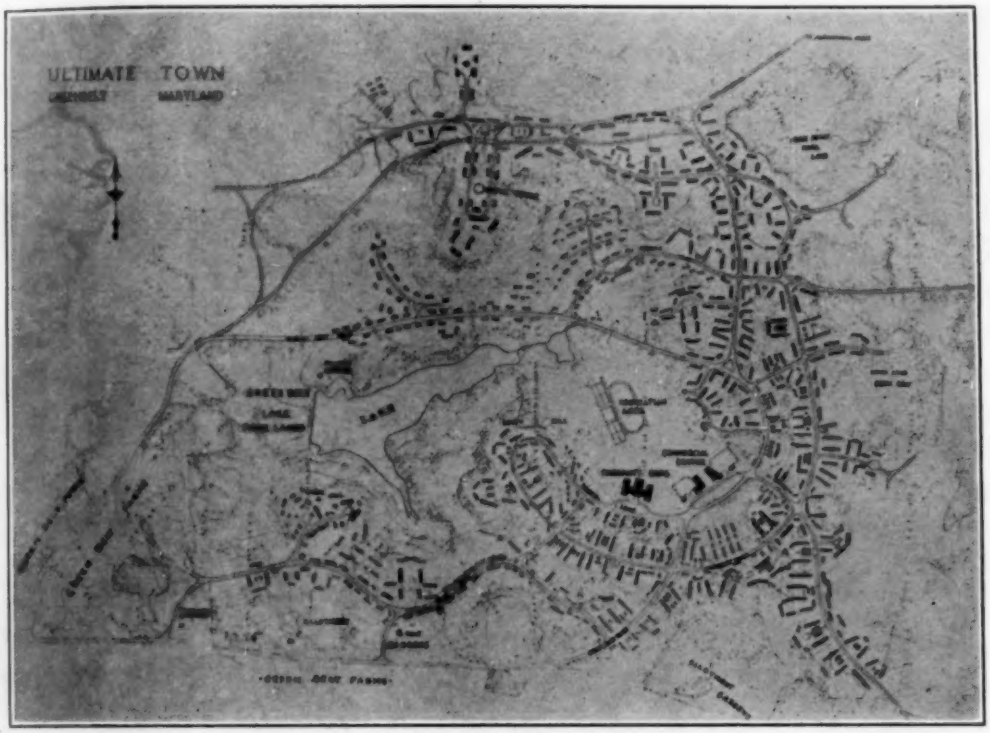


FIGURE 5.—CITY PLAN OF GREENBELT, MD.

are kept at a minimum. Use of underpasses where pathways cross main roads provides additional safety.

Most of the dwellings are in rows or groups, built either of brick veneer or cinder block. In addition, 288 apartment units are included. About 120 dwellings are grouped in each of the superblocks making up the town. Each group has separate garden and service sides. The garden and play areas are usually on the inside of the block, with service entrances to the streets. In landscaping Greenbelt, use has been made of the native trees and shrubs which were saved in clearing the site. This means that planting costs will be proportionately decreased and is a unique measure in plant conservation.

Architecturally, Greenbelt dwellings are modern. Use has been made of the newest practical designs and materials. For example, glass brick employed in stair halls gives the maximum amount of light. Metal casement window frames provide durability. Every attention

has been directed toward orienting the houses in such a way that the maximum of sunlight and prevailing favorable winds has been obtained. A major economy has been made possible through installation of a central heating plant. This has made it unnecessary to build costly cellars and also means that heat will be generated at lower cost than in small individual furnaces.

A typical superblock of dwellings houses 400 to 500 persons in 122 separate units. From one to three bedrooms are provided in each house, making it possible to house one to six persons.

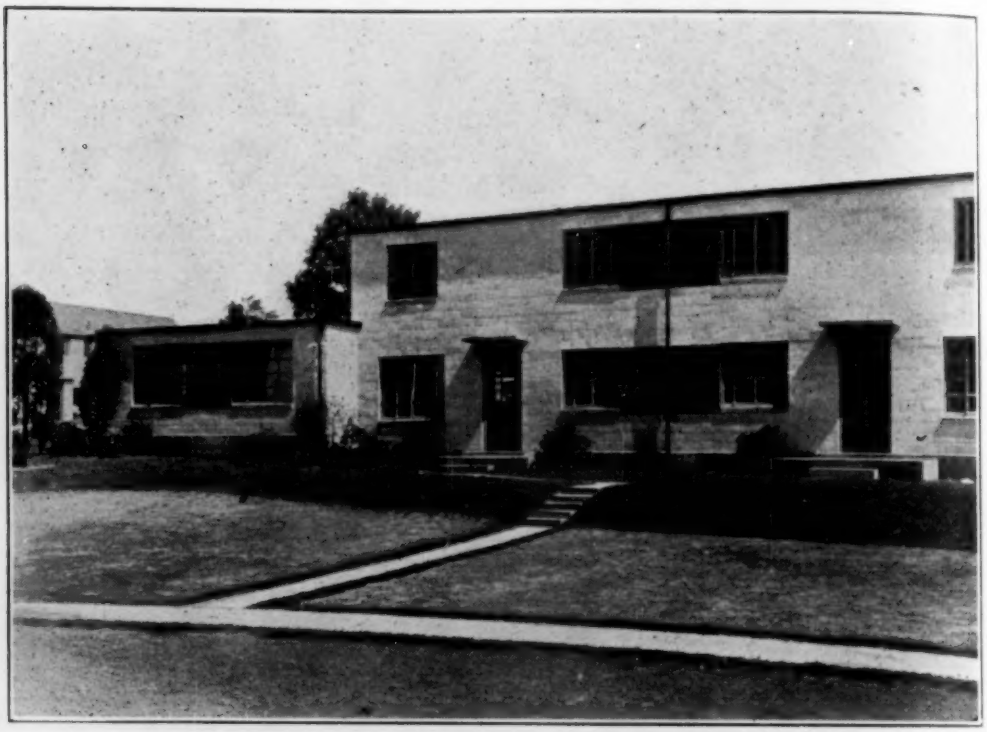


FIGURE 6.—TYPICAL GREENBELT, MD., ROW HOUSE.

Greenbelt will be well provided with educational, recreational, social, and shop facilities. Its community center has been designed for maximum use, being so arranged that it has class rooms, gymnasium, and a library. The business center has a market, the management office, a garage, and a variety of stores, as well as a motion-picture theater.

Unexpected delays have resulted in postponement of the date of completion of this project. It now seems likely that it will be ready for occupancy during the late summer of this year. Meanwhile a number of plans are being considered for establishing the sum for which the town will be conveyed to private ownership and the terms of amortization. If it is decided to accept tenants with incomes of $1,200 to $2,000, moderate rentals can be charged and the Federal Government will allow a smaller write-off than would be necessary if lower-income families are housed at proportionately lower rentals.

Summary

PARTICIPATION of the Government in furnishing these projects raises the questions: (1) Has the theory and the method of development been economically sound? (2) What are the measurable effects of this kind of resettlement on the project residents and the neighboring community? (3) What are the social possibilities of such a program? The drawbacks include financial losses, in part due to high costs incident to employment of relief labor, and the slowness of private industry in establishing operations on projects where employment opportunities have been lacking. Some of the positive results of the program may be pointed out by citing individual experience in connection with the development of Penderlea, Longview, and Greenbelt.

Citing a particular case, Longview Homesteads has fully justified itself financially. It was possible for the Federal Government to transfer the community to private ownership practically at face value and a reasonable interest return during the amortization period. The houses, with land and planting, were cheap enough for low-income families to buy on a long-term basis at nominal interest. An influential factor in the financial success of this venture also lies in the fact that the community was set up near a city where employment opportunities are good and regular work is the rule, thus insuring to the homestead purchasers a steady income from which to meet their obligations and to the Government regular payments to effect amortization.[4]

On the other projects, where certain educational and community facilities are a part of the initial cost, the Government can not recover its full investment and at the same time provide low-cost housing, and must, therefore, write off some of the original cost. However, the total amount of the write-off is not a direct and exclusive subsidy to the project tenants and their families as at least some proportion of the higher costs, in developments such as Penderlea and Greenbelt for example, is attributable to employment of relief labor as a part of The Works Program under W. P. A. In addition, an indeterminate sum is chargeable to general education of the public to better housing. One phase of this situation should not be overlooked, namely, that in providing superior housing at low rates with an opportunity for tenants to supplement their small incomes by work on subsistence gardens, as in Longview Homesteads particularly, the Government is indirectly subsidizing industry paying low wages. This possibility was recognized in selecting the cities near which greenbelt towns were established. Consideration was then given to the diversity of employment in each city, as "diversity of employment also reduced the possible chance that any subsidy involved in the providing of low-rent

[4] In this connection it is of interest that the latest report on Longview Homesteads payments shows that obligations were fully up to date.

housing would develop into an indirect subsidy of low wages." [5] This was a recognition of the problem, but by no means a solution, as in the final analysis the low wage level in many industries, rather than a few, was thus subsidized; and to this extent all subsistence farming takes up the slack of low incomes.

Longview best shows the advantages that may accrue to the general community and the project residents from the establishment of a planned village. It has the wholehearted support of the various interests of the neighboring city and its extension has been urged by organized groups. The foregoing summary indicates that residents of the homesteads are directing their efforts well and making a financial success of operations, thus creating personal satisfaction. Penderlea residents have been taken off unproductive land and have had the benefit of the services of agricultural experts in the new land selected and in directing their methods of farming. The degree of their success will doubtless affect the general conditions of the neighborhood and stimulate effort. The increasing growth of suburban communities for the general population indicates that Greenbelt will furnish a type of living much sought after. As all of these projects will meet their fair share of local taxes, make such educational and social facilities as they have available to the adjoining communities, and are often more attractive physically than most of the neighboring farms and homes, the likelihood is that they will contribute materially to the well-being of the towns and villages where they are located.

[5] Greenbelt Towns. Reprinted from the Architectural Record, September 1936.

Work of Employment Service in Clearing Labor Between States [1]

THE Wagner-Peyser Act of June 1933 places upon the United States Employment Service the duty of "maintaining a system for clearing labor among the several States"—in other words, of shifting from one area to another labor required but not available locally.

Such a clearance system is particularly useful to industry in periods of economic recovery when shortages of skilled workers frequently occur in scattered areas. Since a skilled job is frequently a "key" job in production, the filling of such a position with a satisfactory person may bring in its wake a considerable number of jobs for other workers. Thus the importance of the clearance process in the maintenance of stable employment conditions is not entirely measured by the number of clearance placements alone.

When new industrial activity is undertaken in a community, it may be necessary to obtain qualified workers from other cities to fill jobs requiring special skills. The clearance machinery of the Employment Service can provide for such movement with a minimum of dislocation of the labor market by securing the necessary workers from the nearest point.

The Employment Service has handled such adjustments for the contract jobs of the Public Works Administration and the Bureau of Public Roads. When a project is planned, a schedule of labor requirements is made up in advance and turned over to the public employment office. A survey is then made of the local labor supply and the clearance system brought into play to obtain workers not available in the community. In this way the Employment Service has supplied the necessary labor for the tremendous road and highway program of recent years and staffed such projects as Fort Peck and Coulee Dam, where workers of specialized skills were required for jobs in remote and isolated areas.

One of the important functions of the clearance system is illustrated in the relationship between the United States Employment Service and the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization. Before the Immigration Service grants a request for the importation of foreign workers of special skills, the Employment Service, by means of its clearance system, ascertains if such workers are available in the United States. Under this arrangement workers have been found for such occupations as cordial blender, Italian cheese maker, experimental chef, and Greek teacher.

A survey of the placements made through clearance indicates that a large portion of the shortages adjusted have occurred in the skilled

[1] This article was prepared by the Standards and Research Division of the U. S. Employment Service.

trades. Tool designers, tool and die makers, die setters, draftsmen, gear cutters, pattern makers, road-machine operators, and similar skilled workers make up a major portion of clearance placements. The Indiana State Employment Service reported in December 1936 that local shortages within the State existed in 105 skilled occupations.

During the 12 months ended December 31, 1936, more than 227,000 placements, and during the first 3 months of 1937 nearly 24,000 placements, were made in positions in the several States through the clearance process. The largest number of placements thus made in 1936 occurred in Texas where 23,000 persons not available locally were obtained in other communities and referred to jobs in the communities where the openings existed. The clearance placements made in each of the States in 1936 and the first quarter of 1937 are shown in the following table:

Placements Made Through Clearance, January 1936 Through March 1937

State	Year ending Dec. 31, 1936			3 months ending Mar. 31, 1937		
	Total	Private	Other	Total	Private	Other
United States	227,077	19,925	207,152	23,941	4,627	19,314
Alabama	3,404	33	3,371	498	79	419
Arizona	3,033	252	2,781	385	69	316
Arkansas	4,355	389	3,966	338	7	331
California	12,656	3,039	9,617	1,883	311	1,572
Colorado	4,522	1,068	3,454	358	62	296
Connecticut	3,479	307	3,172	403	68	335
Delaware	434	27	407	98	12	86
Florida	2,726	267	2,459	195	84	111
Georgia	1,066	66	1,000	371	269	102
Idaho	2,153	12	2,141	19	3	16
Illinois	3,803	1,318	2,485	276	81	195
Indiana	1,348	1,008	340	198	195	3
Iowa	7,971	113	7,858	452	98	354
Kansas	5,469	76	5,393	491	36	455
Kentucky	271	38	233	11	4	7
Louisiana	6,330	1,342	4,988	502	310	192
Maine	1,770	149	1,621	319	82	237
Maryland	1,318	26	1,292	216	7	209
Massachusetts	6,452	645	5,807	612	44	568
Michigan	2,353	506	1,847	196	118	78
Minnesota	14,586	2,525	12,061	1,214	733	481
Mississippi	2,115	107	2,008	406	2	404
Missouri	7,958	120	7,838	692	58	634
Montana	13,511	258	13,253	244	44	200
Nebraska	4,816	114	4,702	228	6	222
Nevada	2,760	275	2,485	174	39	135
New Hampshire	1,748	153	1,595	143	45	98
New Jersey	593	200	393	302	143	159
New Mexico	8,193	1,331	6,862	687	24	663
New York	706	478	228	217	207	10
North Carolina	6,562	559	6,003	844	101	743
North Dakota	1,964	176	1,788	120	15	105
Ohio	10,252	153	10,099	920	48	872
Oklahoma	3,147	18	3,129	631	3	628
Oregon	5,430	267	5,163	496	60	436
Pennsylvania	6,251	284	5,967	1,560	246	1,314
Rhode Island	537	6	531	242	31	211
South Carolina	1,472	4	1,468	191	9	182
South Dakota	2,464	15	2,449	130	6	124
Tennessee	939	23	916	202	89	113
Texas	23,167	488	22,679	3,525	47	3,478
Utah	2,529	340	2,189	151	24	127
Vermont	254	24	230	51	10	41
Virginia	7,690	779	6,911	1,165	459	706
Washington	13,559	191	13,368	835	127	708
West Virginia	2,342	215	2,127	212	52	160
Wisconsin	1,687	80	1,607	156	55	101
Wyoming	3,556	52	3,504	254	5	249
District of Columbia	1,376	9	1,367	128	----------	128

How Clearance Procedure Operates

CLEARANCE is the method by which qualified applicants registered at one public employment office are referred to employers who have sought workers through another office. Since the United States Employment Service functions as an agency for the coordination of State employment services and for the promotion of standards of efficiency for employment-office operation, its relationship to the clearance procedures of the State employment services should be considered in this light. Certain basic principles of clearance have been established by the Federal Service and essential forms for the exchange of information among offices have been prescribed to insure a certain uniformity. This framework within which each State service develops its own clearance procedure is set forth by the United States Employment Service in its Manual of Clearance Procedure.

Fundamental to the idea of referring workers from one place to another is the principle that a public employment office, before attempting to fill an opening through clearance, should make a thorough canvass not only of its own file of applications, but also of available workers in the community who may not be registered. Any possibility of transferring workers from one occupation or industry to another is also utilized before resorting to clearance.

The Occupational Research Program of the United States Employment Service is engaged in a study to determine the similarities between occupations. This information will point the way toward greater occupational and industrial mobility of workers. As the lines along which workers may transfer from one occupation or industry to another become better known, the necessity for geographic transfer of workers may become less frequent.

Clearance procedure is composed of two steps: First, the reporting of an unfilled opening by an office to cooperating offices; second, the actual referral of an applicant from the office at which he is registered to the office holding the opening. For the first step each State service provides (1) a detailed operating procedure outlining for each employment office the specific channels to be followed for circulation of clearance requests; (2) a method of circulating clearance requests which will insure the transfer of workers over the shortest possible distance; and (3) a simple, economical, and time-saving routine permitting, when necessary, the extension of the search for qualified applicants to increasingly wider areas.

In referring applicants to openings held by other offices certain major principles are observed. In short these are: (1) No applicant is transferred without specific authorization by the office which has the opening; (2) no applicant is permitted to arrive at the place of employment in advance of a prior notice from the office of his original registration; and (3) the office which has the opening assumes responsi-

bility for reporting the disposition of the applicant to the office which referred him.

In effecting the transfer of an applicant, a certain amount of correspondence among cooperating offices is necessary. This exchange of information is carried on by use of forms designated by the United States Employment Service for all State services. The form basic to the clearance procedure is one by which information about an opening is circulated in the search for a worker. It is designed to contain a complete picture, in all essential detail, of a job's requirements so that an office receiving the request has the data necessary for determining whether or not a qualified applicant is registered.

Information about a suitable applicant is returned to the office which has the opening on a duplicate of the regular registration card used by all public employment offices. Thus, the opening office is in possession of the same information that it would have if the applicant had originally registered with it. Before deciding whether or not to request an applicant to make the trip to be interviewed by a prospective employer, this office usually discusses with the employer the qualifications of the individuals whose registration cards have been received.

Before referring a worker to another community, an office interviews the individual again to verify the information on his registration card. Thus even more care goes into the selection of a worker for an opening filled by clearance than for an opening received and filled by a single office.

Since an employment-office applicant is never assured of a job until he is interviewed by the employer, the major difference between a clearance placement and an ordinary one lies in the distance the applicant must travel to meet the employer. Sometimes the employer offers to pay the expenses of a worker who comes from another community.

The responsibility assumed when the employment service places an applicant in a community away from his home makes it necessary that an opening filled through clearance be one which is likely to prove satisfactory to the worker. Jobs which local persons will not take because of unsatisfactory conditions are not circulated among cooperating offices. The New York State Employment Service, for instance, has adopted the rule that it will not attempt to fill any straight commission jobs through clearance before the company has been investigated by the Better Business Bureau or the Bureau of Labor Welfare of the State Department of Labor. Similar standards with respect to openings are observed throughout the employment service.

Within the guiding framework prescribed by the United States Employment Service, how do the State services develop their clearance procedures? Probably the simplest method of finding out is to

look at the organization in a single State. The clearance procedure of the Texas State Employment Service provides a typical example.

Typical State Clearance Procedure

THE Texas clearance procedure operates on a decentralized basis. A district manager may communicate with other district managers directly to find qualified workers or may even delegate to the local offices in his jurisdiction authority to contact other local offices. An office receiving a clearance request must determine, by inspection of its file of registrations, whether or not a qualified worker is available for transfer. If such an applicant is found, the office must so inform the unit which originated the request.

An opening office must communicate with other offices for the transfer of workers in the following order:

First, the adjacent counties;
Second, the remaining counties in the employment-service district;
Third, all districts adjoining that of the opening office;
Fourth, if the required worker is known to be available in a particular county in the State, the office in that county may be reached directly.

If these steps fail to unearth a suitable worker, the district manager of the office holding the order notifies the State headquarters. Along with the form describing the job to be filled, he sends a list of all offices that have been canvassed.

The State clearance office then duplicates the form covering the opening and circularizes the remaining districts in Texas. Clearance from other States is requested if necessary. When interstate clearance is resorted to, the adjoining States are written to first, and those farther away are circularized subsequently until the needed worker is found. Interstate clearance is handled through State headquarters except where provision is made for local offices situated near the border of adjoining States to communicate directly. Such arrangements are made by agreement between the State administrative offices.

The search for a worker usually follows a definite routine and extends over an ever-widening area until the required individual is located. Offices in the farthest points of the United States are tapped if necessary. The routine described, however, is not rigid. A distant office may be contacted before one close by when it is known that the desired worker is probably available at the former place and not at the latter.

When an office receives notice of an opening held by another office, it must search its files for a qualified applicant who is willing to take a job in a different community. If a suitable applicant is found, a duplicate of his registration card is returned to the office which holds

the opening. The latter office then replies either (1) that the worker should be requested to come to the community where the job is located, (2) that the applicant cannot be accepted for a stated reason. If a transfer is authorized, exact instructions are made out. The information is forwarded on a form provided by the United States Employment Service.

This form also serves other purposes. Space is provided on it for indicating the name and date of departure of the individual referred if a transfer has been requested. The form is returned with this information to reach the opening office in advance of the applicant's arrival. Space is also included for the opening office to verify the transfer and give notice of the final disposition of the individual transferred. When this verification is returned to the office where the applicant originally registered, the case is closed.

LABOR INVOLVED IN INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

Indirect Labor Requirements in Construction of Houses by the T. V. A.

By BERNARD H. TOPKIS and H. O. ROGERS, of the BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS [1]

IN RECENT years Federal, State, and municipal governmental agencies have become increasingly interested in promoting house construction. Among the Federal agencies in the field are the Public Works Administration, the Federal Housing Administration, the Home Owners' Loan Corporation, the Resettlement Administration, and the Tennessee Valley Authority. This widespread interest is not entirely due to the appreciation of the physical, moral, and economic liabilities connected with substandard housing. A factor of equal importance in stimulating interest is the growing recognition of the enormous work-creating potentialities which building construction represents.

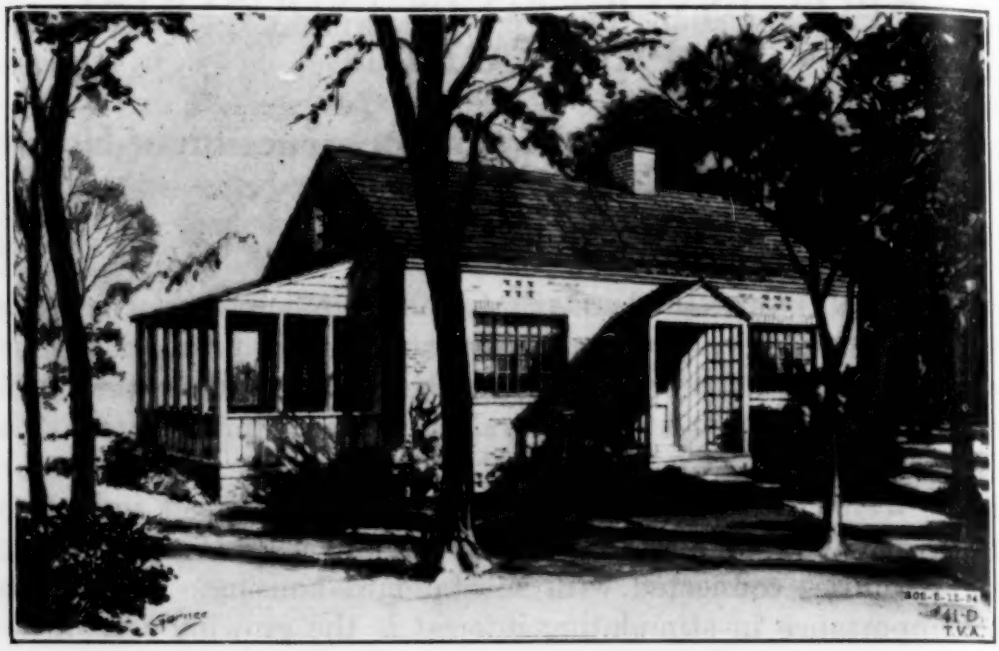
Reliable quantitative guides to the direct labor requirements in building construction are available from the records of the Bureau of the Census and from studies of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Little has been known, however, of the number of additional jobs created indirectly by the production and transportation of the materials consumed in house construction. In an effort to fill this gap, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has recently completed a study of the man-hours of labor required in the production of some of the principal materials used by the Tennessee Valley Authority in the construction of single-family dwellings of moderate cost.

Factual Basis and Limitations of the Study

THE study was undertaken at the request of Dr. A. E. Morgan, chairman of the Tennessee Valley Authority, and covered the principal materials used in building the three main types of houses constructed in the planned community that has been established by the T. V. A. at Norris, Tenn. Two types of houses were 2-story structures of 4 rooms and bath, and the other was the most common type built at Norris, a 1½-story house of 4 rooms, with sleeping porch, laundry, screened porch, attic, and bath. Of the 2-story structures, one was a frame house with an exterior of hand-riven shingles and the other was constructed chiefly of cinder blocks, a relatively new type designed for low-cost housing. The 1½-story house was made of irregularly

[1] Under the direction of Herman B. Byer, Chief of the Division of Construction and Public Employment.

laid deep-toned brick. The accompanying illustrations show 2 of the types studied—the 1½-story brick house and the 2-story cinder-block house.



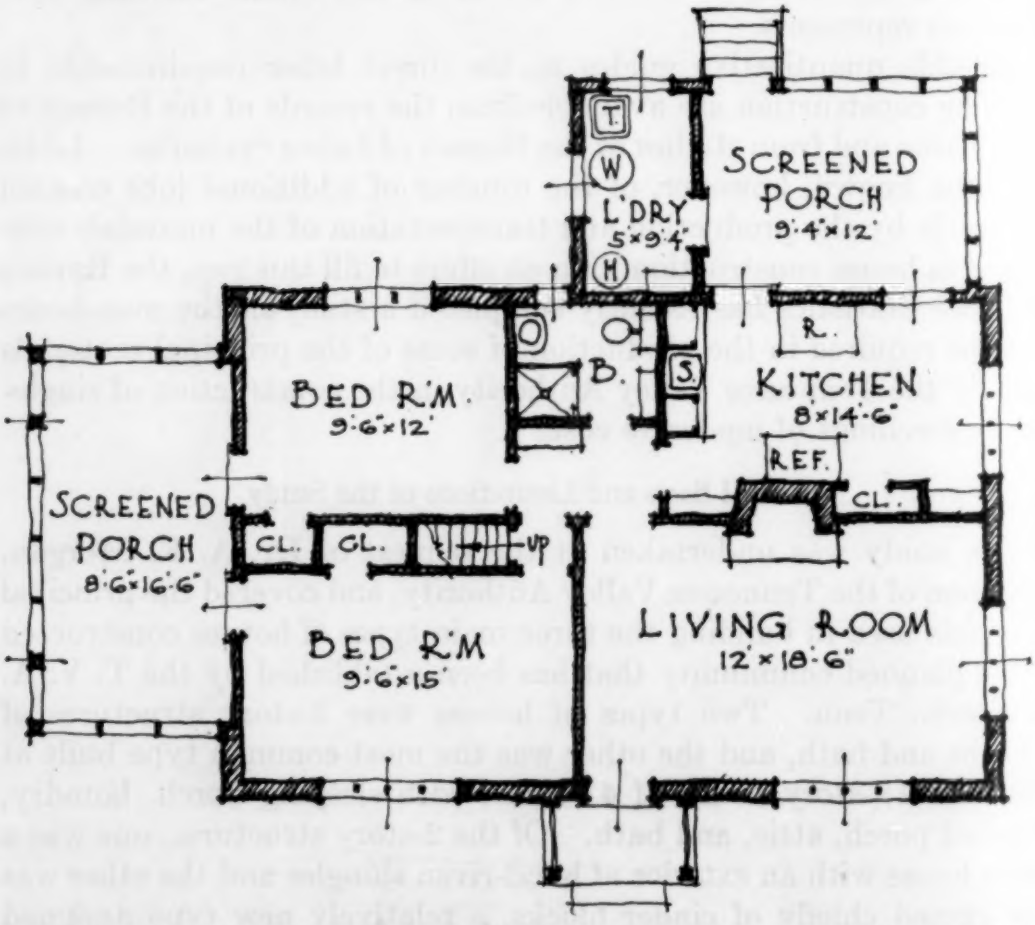


PLATE 1.—EXTERIOR VIEW AND FLOOR PLAN OF 1½-STORY BRICK HOUSE AT NORRIS, TENN.

As previously indicated, information was not obtained for all of the materials used in the construction of the houses. The materials covered were: (1) Masonry materials (cement, sand and gravel, lime, brick, cinder block, concrete joists, and concrete slabs); (2) lumber products (yard lumber, exterior and interior millwork, planing-mill

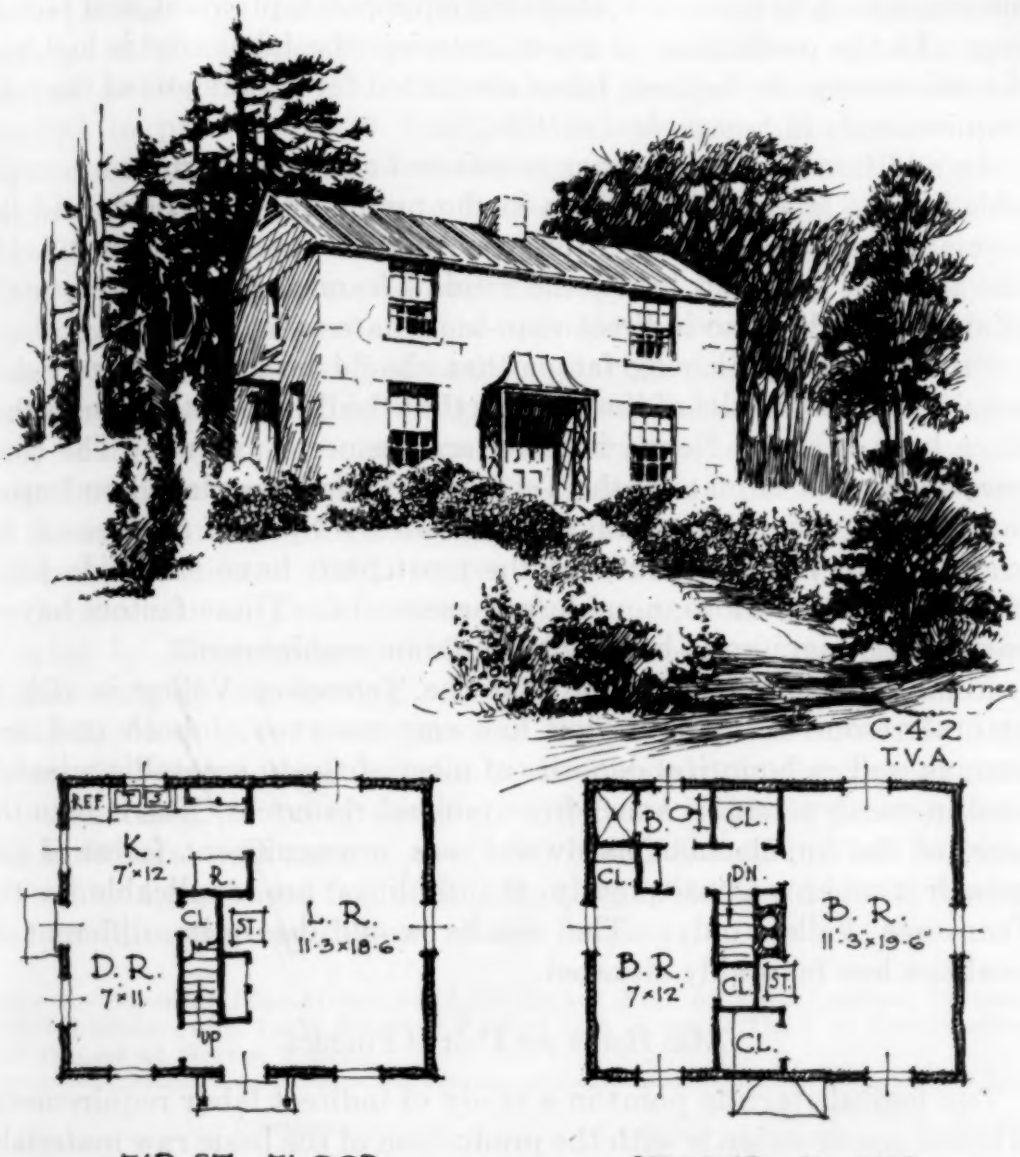


PLATE 2.—EXTERIOR VIEW AND FLOOR PLAN OF 2-STORY CINDER BLOCK HOUSE AT NORRIS, TENN.

lumber, sash and doors, shingles, and cabinetwork); and (3) iron and steel products (structural steel and nails). On the basis of weight, the products for which man-hour data were secured represent more than 90 percent of the materials used. For each of these items the labor requirements per unit of product were traced back to the production of the basic raw materials. The analysis was confined, however, to labor requirements which could be measured quantitatively, and no effort was made to compute the labor cost of such items as depreciation of plant and equipment.

Although in sheer bulk the materials for which information was obtained included nearly all of the important items, on the basis of value they represent only about 50 percent of the total cost of materials used in the construction of the houses. This is because the items that were omitted included many of the highly fabricated products such as hardware, electrical equipment, plywood, and plumbing. In the production of these materials the labor cost is high and for this reason the indirect labor accounted for is far short of the total requirements in house construction.

In addition to the omissions mentioned above, no figures are available for the labor requirements in the manufacture of paint and the insulating materials used. Moreover, on one type of house included in the analysis (1½-story brick) the window frames and sash were made of steel, for which no indirect man-hour data were available.

Still another qualifying factor that should be kept in mind when considering the results of the study is that the design of the houses that have been built at Norris is in several respects unique. The comparatively mild climate of the Tennessee Valley has played an important part in the construction of the houses. None of the houses, for example, are plastered but, for the most part, have an inside finish of plywood. Likewise, none have basements. These factors have a particularly significant bearing upon labor requirements.

Finally, it should be noted that the Tennessee Valley is rich in natural resources. The region has vast reserves of both coal and iron, as well as bountiful deposits of most of the nonmetallic minerals used in construction. Apart from mineral resources, Norris is in the heart of the Appalachian hardwood area, a magnificent forest of old-growth timber. Consequently the findings are applicable to the Tennessee Valley only. The results would be quite different in localities less favorably situated.

Man-Hours per Unit of Product

THE logical starting point in a study of indirect labor requirements in house construction is with the production of the basic raw materials. For the most part the factual basis for this phase of the analysis was obtained directly from producers. There were sharp differences in the adequacy of the data, but the statistical bases for most of the materials are believed to be broad enough to be representative.

Lumber products.—Although Norris is in close proximity to the Appalachian hardwood region, the lumber used in the houses was chiefly southern pine. In all, 28 sawmills were studied, and although the results probably do not fit the experience of any one mill, they give a reasonably accurate cross section of the industry in the southern pine region.

In logging, the preliminary stage of lumber production, allowances were made for the labor required in felling the timber, and for skidder,

loading, and rigger operations, as well as for transportation to the sawmill and for maintenance of equipment and right of way. For the manufacture of yard lumber, or rough lumber, 5.1 man-hours per 1,000 board feet are required in the operations incident to logging and 4.7 man-hours in transporting the logs to the sawmills, a total of 9.8 man-hours per 1,000 board feet. More highly fabricated products entail a larger proportion of waste, and labor requirements increase accordingly. Thus 1,100 board feet of rough lumber is required to produce 1,000 board feet of planing-mill lumber and 5.6 man-hours are required in the logging operations and 5.2 man-hours in transporting the logs to the sawmill, a total of 10.8 man-hours per 1,000 board feet.

Manufacturing operations include sawing, planing, drying, and handling. For yard lumber these operations involve 13.0 man-hours of labor per 1,000 board feet and for planing-mill lumber 17.8 man-hours are required. This brings the total labor requirements per 1,000 board feet to 24.8 man-hours for yard lumber and to 30.6 man-hours for planning-mill lumber. These figures include an allowance for the man-hours required for selling and administration.

A recapitulation of the labor requirements per 1,000 board feet in the production of yard lumber and planing-mill lumber is given in table 1. This table also shows the man-hours required in the manufacture of oak flooring. It will be noted that 72.3 man-hours per 1,000 flooring feet are required in the manufacture of oak flooring, or over 50 percent more than the 30.6 man-hours in the manufacture of pine flooring. Part of this large difference is due to greater waste and shrinkage. As against the 1,100 board feet of lumber required to produce 1,000 board feet of pine flooring, 1,230 board feet of lumber are needed in the manufacture of oak flooring.

Table 1.—Average Man-Hours per 1,000 Board Feet of Yard Lumber, Planing-Mill Lumber, and 1,000 Flooring Feet of Oak Flooring Used in Construction of Houses at Norris, Tenn.

Operation	Yard lumber	Planing mill lumber	Oak flooring
All operations	24.8	30.6	72.3
Logging	5.1	5.6	11.7
Transportation to sawmill	4.7	5.2	5.8
Manufacturing	13.0	17.8	48.8
Selling and administration	2.0	2.0	6.0

Other important lumber products used in house construction include interior and exterior millwork such as molding, casings, sash, doors, frames, stairs, and cabinetwork. In the Tennessee Valley region these products are usually made by millwork establishments not ordinarily connected with the lumber producers. Generally the rough lumber is shipped by the sawmills to the millwork establish-

ments where it is graded, kiln dried, planed, and reduced to the required size before the millwork operation proper begins. At the mills covered these preliminary operations involved an average of 55.2 man-hours per 1,000 board feet. This figure includes an allowance of 27.3 man-hours for the rough lumber; 6.6 man-hours for transportation from the sawmill to site of manufacture; 18.9 man-hours for grading, resawing, planing, and other labor around the yard; and 2.4 man-hours for kiln drying.

In the subsequent stages of millwork manufacture the labor requirements vary widely, depending upon the type of mill and the products manufactured. There are two main types of millworking establishments: The special houses which manufacture the better grades of millwork for individual specifications, and the so-called "stock establishments" which make large runs of their own particular styles and sell in wholesale quantities. The labor requirements are, of course, much higher in the special mills than in the stock mills. In order to spread employment as much as possible, the millwork used in the houses at Norris was divided equally between the two types of establishments located in the T. V. A. area. As a result, it was necessary to cover both types in the present study. The sharp differences in labor requirements at the special and stock mills are illustrated by table 2. This table shows that with the mills operating at medium speed, the man-hours per 100 lineal feet of molding at special mills were approximately 3 times as great as at stock mills.

Table 2.—Comparison of Man-Hour Requirements per 100 Lineal Feet of Molding at Special and Stock Millwork Establishments in T. V. A. Area

[Medium-speed operation]

Operation	Special mills	Stock mills	Average
All operations	1.60	0.53	1.065
Ripping and cutting	.54	.19	.365
Sticking	.36	.14	.250
Sanding	.25	.08	.165
Grinding knives	.10	.01	.055
Setting machines	.10	.01	.055
Selling and administration	.25	.10	.175

Similar differences between the special and stock mills are shown for most of the other millwork products. The allocation of orders for other millwork products used in the houses at Norris, however, was made on a somewhat different basis. Most of the doors and sash, for example, were supplied by western stock mills. The cabinetwork and window frames, on the other hand, were purchased principally from special millwork establishments. The man-hours required in the manufacture of doors, sash, window frames, and cabinets used in the Norris houses are given in table 3.

Table 3.—Average Man-Hours Required in Manufacture of Doors, Sash, Window Frames, and Cabinets Used in T. V. A. Houses at Norris, Tenn.

Operation	Stock millwork		Special millwork	
	Douglas fir doors (each)	White pine sash (each)	Window frames (each)	Cabinets (per square foot)
All operations	1.23	0.46	4.77	1.64
Lumber [1]	.73	.21	2.16	.26
Manufacture	.44	.21	1.86	1.12
Selling and administration	.06	.04	.75	.26

[1] Includes allowance for transportation to mills.

All of the shingles used in the houses at Norris were hand riven at the site of construction. Consequently, although no transportation was involved, the labor cost was unusually high, being 13 man-hours per 1,000 shingles. This is greatly in excess of the labor requirements involved in the ordinary machine method of manufacture.

Masonry products.—The masonry products used in the construction of the houses at Norris and for which information concerning indirect labor requirements was obtained included cement, sand and gravel, lime, bricks, cinder blocks, concrete joists, and concrete slabs. All of these materials are produced in the Tennessee Valley area.

For the labor requirements in cement manufacture, five plants were studied. To produce a barrel of cement the plants included consumed an average of 520 pounds of limestone, 120 pounds of clay, and 15 pounds of gypsum. In addition, an average of 130 pounds of coal was needed to reduce the mixture of limestone, clay, and gypsum to clinker. The manufacturing process itself is highly mechanized, but in addition to the labor required in the extraction of the mineral raw materials, some labor is required for preparing the mixture, burning, grinding, packing, and supervision. In the aggregate, including allowances for extraction and the transportation of the raw materials to the mill, as well as the processing and packing operations, 0.67 man-hour of employment was created at the plants studied for each barrel of cement produced. Of the total, 28.4 percent was accounted for in the extraction of the mineral raw materials.

The sand and gravel operations studied were all performed by river dredges. The operations involved dredging, shipping by barge to the yard where the recovered material was screened and graded, and loading the finished product on a railroad car or truck. All of the yards covered were equipped with mechanical conveyors and modern labor-saving devices. The dredging operation required 0.106 man-hour per ton and an equal amount of labor was required for barging. Operating at 65 percent of capacity 0.431 man-hour of labor per ton was required for the work in the yards, and an allowance

of 0.138 man-hour per ton was made for general overhead and administration. Thus the total labor requirements per ton of aggregate were 0.781 man-hour. At full capacity the labor requirements would be considerably less.

The man-hour data for the manufacture of hydrated lime used in building the houses at Norris were furnished by three plants located in the Tennessee Valley area. Each of these plants had a rated annual capacity of from 15,000 to 20,000 tons. The operations considered in determining the man-hours required included the quarrying of the limestone, transportation to the adjacent kiln, burning to reduce to lump lime, the hydrating process, and bagging. Quarrying and transporting the 1.80 tons of limestone needed to manufacture a ton of lump lime took 1.25 man-hours of labor. With the kilns operating at 50 percent of capacity, 2.10 man-hours per ton were needed to reduce the limestone to lump lime, and the hydrating process and bagging required 2.60 man-hours per ton. The general overhead, including office, selling, and administration work, involved 0.80 man-hour per ton. An additional factor to be considered was the coal used in the kiln operations. Approximately a third of a ton of coal was used for each ton of lime produced, which, according to the records of the Bureau of Mines, represents 0.56 man-hour of labor. Transporting the coal from the mines to the kilns involved 0.29 man-hour. Thus the total labor requirements per ton of lime amounted to 7.60 man-hours.

Common bricks, made from clay mined in close proximity to the site of manufacture, were used in the construction of the houses at Norris. The records of the brick plants included in the study indicate that, for each 1,000 bricks manufactured, 0.66 man-hour was required for clay mining, 1.61 man-hours for molding, 2.91 man-hours for setting and the kiln operation, 4.50 man-hours for unloading kilns, grading, and loading for shipment, and 1.64 man-hours for producing the coal and shipping it to the point of manufacture. In all, including an allowance for general supervision and administration, 12.40 man-hours of labor were required per 1,000 brick. This total makes no allowance for the sand used in the kiln operations and other miscellaneous supplies, as these supplementary items were not of sufficient importance to make an appreciable difference.

Cinder blocks are manufactured from cinders and cement, 39 cubic feet of cinders and 1.25 barrels of cement being used to manufacture 100 blocks weighing a ton. As the cinder used was a waste product, the only labor involved was that used in loading the cinders, transporting them from the source of supply to the point of manufacture, and unloading. It is estimated that 3.98 man-hours per ton of cinder block were required for this work. The cement used in the manufacture of a ton of cinder blocks, including an allowance for transportation, involved 1.13 man-hours. The manufacturing operation

consists of pulverizing the cinders, mixing with the cement, and forming the blocks by a machine process. The blocks are first stacked in a drying room and later removed to the yard. Operating at 50 percent of plant capacity these operations required 7 man-hours, and 1.30 man-hours were added for general overhead and administration. The total labor requirements per ton of cinder block were thus 13.41 man-hours.

Concrete joists and slabs are comparatively recent innovations in the field of house construction and usually are made by the same companies that manufacture the cinder blocks. To manufacture 100 lineal feet of 3 by 8 joist requires 191 pounds of reinforcing steel bars, 0.87 barrel of cement, 1,650 pounds of aggregate, and 50 feet of yard lumber for the forms. Including transportation to the site of manufacture, 6.21 man-hours are represented by these materials. The manufacturing process, including an allowance for general overhead, involves 15 man-hours, which brings the total labor requirements per 100 lineal feet of joist to 21.21 man-hours.

Concrete slabs are used for flooring in the cinder-block houses. The materials used to manufacture 100 square feet of slabs, 2 inches thick, are 34 pounds of steel, 1,700 pounds of aggregate, and 1.25 barrels of cement. The manufacture of these materials accounted for 2.88 man-hours, and transporting them to the plants where the slabs are manufactured required 1.18 man-hours. Manufacturing the slabs, together with an allowance for general overhead, accounted for 16 man-hours. The total labor requirements per 100 square feet of concrete slabs thus amounted to 20.06 man-hours.

Iron and steel products.—A previous study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics [2] is the factual basis for the man-hours required in the production of the iron and steel products used in the construction of the houses.

According to that study, 33.91 man-hours are involved in producing a gross ton of structural steel shapes. Of the total, 8.72 man-hours are required to produce the mineral raw materials and 7.04 man-hours for transporting the raw materials to the site of manufacture, and the manufacturing process (including administration) involved 18.15 man-hours per ton.

Ordinary wire nails used in building construction involve 61.61 man-hours per ton. The manufacturing process, including an allowance for administration, requires 44.40 man-hours, production of the raw materials 8.97 man-hours, and transportation of the raw materials to the site of manufacture 8.24 man-hours.

Transportation to site of construction.—To round out the study of indirect labor requirements in building the houses at Norris, the final factor to be considered is the amount of work created in transporting

[2] Monthly Labor Review, May 1935 (pp. 1155–1161).

the finished products to the construction site. Some of the materials used, such as shingles, were manufactured at the site and involved no labor in transportation. Most of the materials, however, involved not only railroad transportation but also a 6-mile truck haul from the nearest railroad siding.

The best available means of determining the amount of labor involved in railroad transportation is afforded by the statistics compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Bureau of Railway Economics. These figures indicate that in years of normal business activity approximately 50 percent of the railroad operating revenue goes for wages and salaries. Dividing half the freight cost by the average hourly wage rates paid by the railroad, therefore, should give a rough indication of the man-hours required in transporting the materials used to the railroad siding. By means of this formula and after allowing for the labor requirements in the 6-mile truck haul, it was possible to make reasonably close estimates of the man-hours required in the transportation of the materials to the site of construction. These estimates are given in table 4.

Table 4.—Estimated Man-Hours per Unit of Product Involved in Transporting Building Materials from Point of Manufacture to Site of Construction

Material	Unit	Man-hours required	Material	Unit	Man-hours required
Cement	Bbl.	0.56	Millwork lumber	1,000 ft.	6.56
Sand and gravel	Ton	2.05	Molding	100 lineal ft. (1 by 1 in.)	.10
Lime	do	3.66	Window frames	1	.35
Brick	1,000	5.74	Sash	1	.07
Cinder block	Ton	3.33	Doors	1	.33
Concrete slabs	100 sq. ft.	4.00	Cabinets	Sq. ft.	.06
Concrete joist	100 lineal ft.	3.33	Structural shapes	Ton	9.59
Yard lumber	1,000 bd. ft.	9.00	Nails	do	9.59
Planing-mill lumber	do	8.32			
Oak flooring	1,000 ft.	8.69			

Total Indirect Labor Involved

KNOWING the man-hours required per unit in producing the raw materials, in manufacturing the finished product, and in transportation, the next step is to ascertain the total indirect labor represented by these materials in the construction of each house. This is a relatively simple matter, as the Tennessee Valley Authority keeps a complete record of the materials used in construction. Before making the extensions, however, it will be helpful to give a recapitulation of the man-hours per unit for each of the materials for which information is available. This is done in table 5, which shows for 19 of the important building materials used in the houses at Norris the total labor requirements per unit, as well as the number of man-hours involved in each major stage of production and transportation.

Table 5.—Recapitulation of Man-Hours Required in Production of Building Materials Used in House Construction at Norris, Tenn.

Material	Unit	Number of man-hours required					
		Total	Production, basic raw material	Transportation to site of manufacture	Manufacture	Administrative [1]	Transportation to site of construction
Masonry products							
Cement	Bbl	1.23	0.19	0.06	0.35	0.07	0.56
Sand and gravel	Ton	2.84	.11	.11	.43	.14	2.05
Lime	do	11.26	1.56	.54	4.70	.80	3.66
Brick	1,000	18.14	1.50	.80	9.75	.35	5.74
Cinder block (2 inches thick)	Ton	16.74	4.82	.29	7.00	1.30	3.33
Concrete slabs (3 by 8 inches)	100 sq. ft	24.06	2.88	1.18	14.00	2.00	4.00
Concrete joist	100 lineal ft	24.54	4.70	1.51	13.00	2.00	3.33
Lumber products							
Yard lumber	1,000 bd. ft	33.80	5.10	4.70	13.00	2.00	9.00
Planing-mill lumber	do	38.92	5.60	5.20	17.80	2.00	8.32
Oak flooring	1,000 ft	82.49	11.70	[2] 7.30	48.80	6.00	8.69
Shingles	1,000	13.00	2.00	----	10.00	1.00	----
Millwork lumber	1,000 bd. ft	55.20	5.60	5.20	37.84	----	6.56
Molding:							
Special (1 by 1 inch)	100 lineal ft	2.14	.39	.05	1.35	.25	.10
Stock (1 by 1 inch)	do	1.07	.39	.05	.43	.10	.10
Window frames	1	5.12	1.91	.25	1.86	.75	.35
Sash	1	.53	.19	.02	.21	.04	.07
Doors	1	1.56	.58	.15	.44	.06	.33
Cabinets	Sq. ft	1.69	.24	.02	1.12	.26	.05
Iron and steel products							
Structural shapes	Ton	43.50	8.72	7.04	17.46	.69	9.59
Nails	do	71.20	8.97	8.24	42.70	1.70	9.59

[1] Allowance for salaried workers, sales force, and other general administrative employees.
[2] This includes transportation of rough oak boards from the sawmill to the flooring factory.

From the foregoing table and the records available at the offices of the Tennessee Valley Authority it is possible to compute the total indirect labor required in the production of each of the important materials shown in the table used in the construction of each of the three types of houses. In building the 1½-story brick house, for example, the materials used were 30 barrels of cement, 23.4 tons of sand and gravel, 1.15 tons of hydrated lime, 18,600 clay bricks, 8,393 board feet of yard lumber, 5,500 board feet of shiplap and pine flooring, approximately 990 feet of oak flooring, 3,717 lineal feet of molding, 9,100 shingles, 11 doors, 1 kitchen cabinet, and nearly a third of a ton of steel in the form of nails and structural shapes. In the aggregate the production and transportation of these materials to the site of construction required more than 1,300 man-hours, of which over a third was accounted for by the masonry products and the greater part of the remainder by the lumber products. Only a fractional part of the total was accounted for by the steel products for which information was available. Details for the different types of houses are given in table 6.

In connection with this table it should again be emphasized that the figures do not purport to show the total indirect labor created by house construction. Statistics were obtained for only a part of the materials used. It is true that the materials included are most important from the viewpoint of bulk, but they lack the employment potentialities of many of the highly fabricated products which were omitted from the study.

Table 6.—Total Man-Hours Created in Producing Building Materials Required in Construction of 3 Main Types of Houses in Norris, Tenn.

Material	1½-story brick house		2-story shingle house		2-story cinder-block house	
	Quantity of material used	Man-hours required	Quantity of material used	Man-hours required	Quantity of material used	Man-hours required
Masonry products:						
Cement	30 bbl.	36.90	12.5 bbl.	15.38	13.5 bbl.	16.61
Sand and gravel	23.4 tons	66.46	10.6 tons	30.10	12.7 tons	36.07
Lime	1.15 tons	12.95	0.4 ton	4.50	0.6 ton	6.76
Brick	18,600	337.40	5,800	105.21		
Cinder block					29 tons	485.46
Concrete slabs					1,022 sq. ft.	245.80
Concrete joist					460 ft.	112.88
Lumber products:						
Yard lumber	8,393 bd. ft.	283.68	8,400 bd. ft.	283.92	1,750 bd. ft.	59.15
Planing-mill lumber [1]	5,500 bd. ft.	214.06	4,950 bd. ft.	192.65	1,360 bd. ft.	52.93
Oak flooring	990 ft.	81.67	1,700 ft.	140.23		
Shingles	9,100	118.30	14,200	184.60		
Molding [2]	3,717 ft.	118.20	4,315 ft.	137.22	2,253 ft.	92.37
Window frames	([3])		25	128.00	13	66.56
Sash	([3])		([3])		25	13.25	13	6.89
Doors	11	17.16	23	35.88	11	17.16
Cabinets	25 sq. ft.	42.25	27 sq. ft.	45.63	11 sq. ft.	18.59
Iron and steel products:						
Structural shapes	0.15 ton	6.53	0.05 ton	2.18	0.25 ton	10.88
Nails	do.	10.68	0.15 ton	10.68	0.15 ton	10.68

[1] Includes shiplap and pine flooring.
[2] Average man-hours at stock and special millwork establishments. In the brick house and shingle house the width of all interior and exterior moldings, casings, and similar millwork averaged 3.2 inches, and in the cinder-block house the average width was 4.5 inches.
[3] Window frames and sash on 1½-story brick house are made of steel.

A further analysis of the indirect labor requirements in constructing the houses at Norris is afforded by table 7. In this table the materials for which information was obtained are grouped in three broad classifications. The table shows the total man-hours accounted for by these groups of materials in the construction of each of the three types of houses, as well as the man-hours involved per 1,000 cubic feet.

An interesting feature of this table is the commanding position which lumber products still hold in house construction. In the construction of the shingle house over seven times as much labor is needed to produce the lumber products required as is needed to produce the masonry products. For the brick house the ratio was two to one, and even in the cinder-block house over a third of the indirect labor requirements accounted for was expended in producing lumber products.

Table 7.—Analysis of Man-Hours Required in Producing 3 Major Classes of Building Materials Used in Constructing Houses at Norris, Tenn.

Type of house and class of product	Total man-hours required	Man-hours per 1,000 cubic feet
1½-story brick house (17,156 cu. ft.):		
Masonry products	453.71	26.45
Lumber products	[1] 875.32	[1] 51.02
Iron and steel products [2]	17.21	1.00
2-story shingle house (13,600 cu. ft.):		
Masonry products	155.19	11.41
Lumber products	1,161.38	85.40
Iron and steel products [2]	12.86	.95
2-story cinder-block house (10,000 cu. ft.):		
Masonry products	903.67	90.37
Lumber products	313.65	31.37
Iron and steel products [2]	21.56	2.16

[1] Window frames and sash on the 1½-story brick house are steel.
[2] Includes structural steel and nails only.

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AND UNEMPLOYMENT RELIEF

Nonagricultural Employment in the United States, March 1937

ACCORDING to estimates prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, there were more than 34,100,000 persons employed in nonagricultural industries in the United States in March 1937. This represents an increase of more than 8,200,000 in the 4-year period since the low point of the depression in March 1933.

These estimates have been adjusted to take account of trends revealed by the 1935 census of manufactures and census of business data thus far published. As a result of adjustments to these new census materials the employment figures for 1934 and the following years are somewhat larger than the estimates previously published by the Department of Labor.

The fact that the estimate for March 1937 is only about 1,240,000 below that for March 1929 does not mean that unemployment has been reduced to within 1,240,000 of the 1929 level. A very considerable increase in the number of employables has taken place during the past 8 years, due to normal population growth.

Total employment for the United States as a whole, as well as employment by different divisions of economic activity, are shown in table 1 for March 1929, March 1933, and March 1937.

Table 1.—Total Nonagricultural Employment in Specified Months, by Groups

Group	March 1929	March 1933	March 1937 [1]	Decline March 1929–March 1933	Increase March 1933–March 1937
Total	35,377,000	25,897,000	34,138,000	9,480,000	8,241,000
Employees	28,220,000	19,559,000	26,854,000	8,661,000	7,295,000
Industry	15,565,000	9,438,000	14,138,000	6,127,000	4,700,000
Manufacturing	9,676,000	5,765,000	9,644,000	3,911,000	3,879,000
Mining	1,028,000	584,000	781,000	444,000	197,000
Construction	1,363,000	702,000	968,000	661,000	266,000
Transportation	2,422,000	1,555,000	1,837,000	867,000	282,000
Public utilities	1,076,000	832,000	908,000	244,000	76,000
Distribution and service	12,655,000	10,121,000	12,716,000	2,534,000	2,595,000
Trade	5,947,000	4,231,000	5,811,000	1,716,000	1,580,000
Finance	892,000	712,000	794,000	180,000	82,000
Service and miscellaneous industries	2,604,000	1,966,000	2,584,000	638,000	618,000
Government, education, and professional services	3,212,000	3,212,000	3,527,000	----------	315,000
Proprietors and self-employed persons	4,082,000	3,741,000	4,241,000	341,000	500,000
Casual workers	3,075,000	2,597,000	3,043,000	478,000	446,000

[1] Preliminary.

Separate estimates are shown for the first time for "proprietors and self-employed persons" and for "casual workers." The estimates for "employees" include both wage earners and salaried workers, full time and part time, and are presented separately for each major industrial group.

It will be noted that the sharpest employment declines during the depression took place in the manufacturing, mining, and construction groups. In transportation, public utilities, and all of the "distribution and service" groups, the decline was much less pronounced.

The recovery of manufacturing employment to a level substantially equal to that of March 1929 is particularly striking. Employment in construction, however, is nearly 30 percent below the 1929 level. In transportation the level of employment is still 24 percent less than in March 1929, while in public utilities it is 16 percent below. The trade and service groups are now employing nearly as many persons as in the corresponding month of 1929. The net increase in "Government, education, and professional services" is principally due to the expansion of Federal Government activities.

Employment on Federal emergency construction has been included in these estimates only when such construction is carried out in a manner essentially similar to private work or regular Government work. Thus, employment on P. W. A. projects has been included, as has employment on projects under the supervision of the Bureau of Public Roads. Other Federal emergency projects have been excluded.

Estimates of total employment for each month from January 1929 to March 1937 are shown in table 2. Tables showing monthly figures by employment groups similar to those given in table 1, together with a brief description of the methods used in preparing the estimates, are available from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 2.—Total Nonagricultural Employment in the United States, by Month, 1929 to 1937

[Thousands of persons]

Month	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Average	36,158	33,927	30,851	27,623	27,663	30,167	31,346	32,975	----
January	34,898	34,641	31,426	28,579	26,241	28,688	30,154	31,416	33,340
February	35,045	34,351	31,059	28,389	26,180	29,173	30,465	31,428	33,655
March	35,377	34,293	31,201	28,206	25,897	29,760	30,761	31,840	34,138
April	35,879	34,540	31,499	27,993	26,269	30,184	31,146	32,401	----
May	36,276	34,664	31,530	27,689	26,672	30,608	31,219	32,761	----
June	36,569	34,494	31,419	27,389	27,345	30,706	31,288	33,092	----
July	36,684	34,081	31,052	27,015	27,827	30,462	31,288	33,297	----
August	37,019	33,788	30,807	27,023	28,598	30,478	31,570	33,477	----
September	37,068	33,714	30,699	27,366	29,218	30,304	31,866	33,797	----
October	37,044	33,457	30,375	27,582	29,469	30,611	32,193	34,069	----
November	36,421	32,828	29,734	27,287	29,214	30,450	32,053	33,953	----
December	35,634	32,274	29,410	26,953	29,024	30,578	32,146	34,171	----

The Works Program at the Beginning of 1937

A TOTAL of 2,884,000 jobs was provided by The Works Program in the third week of February 1937, and approximately 90 percent of the persons employed were relief workers. The status of The Works Program at the beginning of 1937 is shown in a recent report of the Works Progress Administration,[1] from which the following data are taken.

Works Projects

BY THE end of 1936, 121,240 projects had been put into operation by the W. P. A. The estimated cost of these projects, in Federal funds, was $3,065,078,841, about three-quarters of which was for construction projects. The remainder was largely for white-collar and goods projects, providing for professional and technical workers and women on the relief rolls who were not qualified for clerical or other white-collar jobs. The sponsors of these projects contributed $463,781,248, which was used mostly for materials, supplies, and other operating costs.

There were 30,031 W. P. A. projects which had been completed by the end of 1936, the total cost being $263,000,482, or an average cost per project of $7,962. Of the total cost, $189,900,830, or 72.2 percent, was for wages. These completed projects furnished 492,659,900 man-hours of employment, the average cost per man-hour being 53.4 cents. Of this, 38.6 cents was for labor and 14.8 cents for other costs.

The types of these completed projects, their total cost, the proportion of Federal and sponsors' funds expended therefor, and the proportion of labor and other costs are shown in table 1.

Table 1.—Number and Cost of Completed W. P. A. Projects, by Types of Projects and by Sources of Funds and Objects of Expenditures [1]

Type of project	Number of projects	Total cost		Percent of cost provided from—		Percent of cost due to—	
		Amount	Percent	Federal funds	Sponsors' funds	Labor	Other costs
Total	33,031	$263,000,482	100.0	79.7	20.3	72.2	27.8
Highways, roads, and streets	11,094	101,629,570	38.7	76.0	24.0	66.9	33.1
Public buildings	6,651	39,802,367	15.1	74.1	25.9	68.4	31.6
Parks and other recreational facilities	2,219	18,226,349	6.9	85.3	14.7	79.8	20.2
Conservation	1,423	14,105,474	5.4	86.9	13.1	79.3	20.7
Sewer systems and other utilities	4,310	39,520,116	15.0	75.9	24.1	68.7	31.3
Airports and other transportation	205	2,666,866	1.0	82.1	17.9	64.7	35.3
White collar	3,429	16,267,909	6.2	92.5	7.5	92.9	7.1
Goods	1,335	19,031,785	7.2	92.5	7.5	82.0	18.0
Sanitation and health	516	4,421,720	1.7	89.1	10.9	84.4	15.6
Miscellaneous	1,849	7,328,326	2.8	85.8	14.2	76.8	23.2

[1] Figures are subject to revision. Based on reports received through Dec. 31, 1936; data for New York City are not available.

[1] U. S. Works Progress Administration. Report on Progress of The Works Program, March 1937. Washington, 1937. See Monthly Labor Review for February 1937 (p. 363) for account of works projects under The Works Program and data for 1935–36.

Up to December 31, 1936, nearly $325,000,000 was expended for materials, supplies, and equipment for use on W. P. A. projects. The varied items and the amount purchased, shown in table 2, give an indication of the indirect employment provided through these projects from the beginning of The Works Program to the end of 1936.

Table 2.—Value of Materials, Supplies, and Equipment Procured for W. P. A. Projects, by Types of Materials, Through Dec. 31, 1936 [1]

Type of material	Value	
	Amount	Percent
Total	$324,446,654	100.0
Lumber and its products (excluding furniture)	35,694,531	11.0
Paints and varnishes	5,641,359	1.7
Sand and gravel	21,059,710	6.5
Crushed stone	17,357,015	5.3
Cement	29,904,509	9.2
Concrete products	16,125,148	5.0
Brick, hollow tile, and other clay products	16,579,450	5.1
Stone and glass products	11,426,335	3.5
Structural and reinforcing steel	16,758,202	5.2
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	20,411,996	6.3
Plumbing equipment and supplies	3,651,488	1.1
Heating and ventilating equipment and supplies	2,944,413	.9
Tools (excluding machine tools)	6,687,018	2.1
Other iron and steel products	15,248,170	4.7
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	5,983,635	1.8
Paving machinery, apparatus, and supplies	547,842	.2
Motor trucks	1,145,527	.4
Other machinery and equipment	5,397,047	1.7
Paving materials and mixtures—bituminous	29,031,159	8.9
Petroleum products	6,851,787	2.1
Office supplies and equipment (including furniture)	3,539,612	1.1
Textiles	21,009,568	6.5
Chemicals and explosives	4,192,418	1.3
Coal and other fuel except wood and petroleum	1,331,960	.4
Tires and rubber goods	774,805	.2
Nonferrous metals	1,569,501	.5
Miscellaneous	23,582,449	7.3

[1] Subject to revision.

In addition to the works projects carried on by the W. P. A., other Federal agencies have participated in The Works Program. Among them are the P. W. A., which through its non-Federal program has built 1,400 public buildings, completed 662 public-utility projects and 200 projects for construction of streets, bridges, etc., and has in operation 981 similar projects. The Bureau of Public Roads has finished 10,000 miles of highways, and is building 2,500 miles more. It has completed 818 grade-crossing projects, and has 907 additional projects under way. The Bureau of Reclamation has carried on 16 large irrigation projects, the largest of which is the Grand Coulee Dam.

Employment and Earnings

THE number of jobs provided by The Works Program in the third week of February 1937 was 2,884,000, a reduction of almost a million from the peak of employment, 3,839,000, in the first week of March 1936. With the exception of the late summer and fall months, when jobs had to be provided for drought sufferers, the number of persons

employed on works projects has been gradually reduced. The employment furnished by The Works Program from its inception in 1935 through February 20, 1937, is shown in table 3:

Table 3.—Employment on The Works Program, July 1935 to February 1937

Week ending—	Grand total	Number of jobs provided (in thousands) by—			Week ending—	Grand total	Number of jobs provided (in thousands) by—		
		W. P. A.	Emergency Conservation Work	Other Federal agencies			W. P. A.	Emergency Conservation Work	Other Federal agencies
1935					*1936*—Con.				
July 31	689	70	487	132	Aug. 29	3,338	2,377	386	575
Aug. 31	1,015	253	594	168	Sept. 26	3,417	2,482	363	572
Sept. 28	1,195	456	557	182	Oct. 31	3,501	2,581	405	515
Oct. 26	1,537	777	555	205	Nov. 28	3,358	2,483	389	486
Nov. 30	3,259	2,484	544	221	Dec. 26	2,988	2,192	377	419
Dec. 28	3,496	2,740	519	237	*1937*				
1936					Jan. 2	2,906	2,152	358	396
Jan. 25	3,710	2,926	486	298	Jan. 9	2,893	2,132	377	382
Feb. 29	3,836	3,036	459	341	Jan. 16	2,887	2,124	393	369
Mar. 28	3,728	2,872	434	422	Jan. 23	2,892	2,129	406	357
Apr. 25	3,478	2,570	391	517	Jan. 30	2,892	2,138	407	347
May 30	3,317	2,340	409	568	Feb. 6	2,886	2,145	405	336
June 27	3,237	2,256	381	600	Feb 13	2,898	2,160	403	335
July 25	3,241	2,249	404	588	Feb. 20	2,884	2,147	397	340

Of the 2,884,000 persons employed on The Works Program during the week ending February 20, 1937, the largest number (2,147,000) were W. P. A. workers and the next largest number (397,000) were employed by Emergency Conservation Work (Civilian Conservation Corps). Relief workers have formed, on the average, 95 percent of the workers of the W. P. A. during its existence. The percentage of relief workers employed under The Works Program as a whole has approximated the required 90 percent except in the latter half of 1936. In June 1936, the percentage was 85, but in January 1937 it had again reached 90.

Emergency employment during the floods of 1936 and 1937, on such work as strengthening levees, helping in evacuation of flooded and threatened sections, and rehabilitation work, provided jobs for from 24,200 to 351,030 persons.

The employment of young persons on National Youth Administration works projects during the year 1936 ranged from 15,611 to 179,399 per month and of adults from 743 to 5,199, the total of both youths and adults in December 1936 being 177,495. This was in addition to The Works Program employment shown in table 3.

The average monthly wage rate paid the 2,147,226 security-wage W. P. A. workers was $53.92 in June 1936, and their average actual earnings were $49.22 a month, the difference being due to deductions for absences, either voluntary or for sickness, and to entering or leaving employment at a time other than the beginning or end of the month.

The average monthly wage of these workers varied according to their skill. The lowest-paid class, the unskilled workers, averaged $47.00 a month, and the professional and technical class, the highest paid, averaged $85.48. The semiskilled and skilled classes earned an average of $57.10 and $76.24 a month, respectively. Unskilled workers represented 65.0 percent of the total W. P. A. employees; semiskilled workers, 11.0 percent; skilled workers, 12.3 percent; and professional and technical workers, 4.4 percent. The remaining 7.3 percent were nonsecurity-wage employees.

The average hourly earnings of W. P. A. workers varied according to the kind of work and whether the employment was in urban or rural sections. White-collar projects had the highest average hourly earnings at the end of 1936 (67.6 cents) and goods projects the lowest (40.6 cents). Table 4 gives the average hourly earnings for each type of project for the half month ending December 31, 1936.

Table 4.—Average Hourly Earnings of Persons Employed on W. P. A. Projects, by Types of Projects and by Sex, Semimonthly Period Ending Dec. 31, 1936 [1]

Type of project	Average hourly earnings (cents)		
	All persons	Men	Women
Total	51.1	52.4	45.7
Highways, roads, and streets	45.4	45.4	
Public buildings	63.4	63.8	
Parks and other recreational facilities	59.7	59.8	
Conservation	46.5	46.5	
Sewer systems and other utilities	52.0	52.0	
Airports and other transportation	53.0	53.0	
White collar	67.6	71.7	61.8
Goods	40.6	51.7	39.2
Sanitation and health	43.5	43.3	55.1
Miscellaneous	49.7	54.2	44.9

[1] Subject to revision.

The average hourly earnings of all workers on W. P. A. projects on January 15, 1937, was 51.5 cents, as compared with 41.3 cents on January 31, 1936. The changes in average hourly earnings from July 1935 to January 1937 were as follows:

Table 5.—Average Hourly Earnings of Persons Employed on W. P. A. Projects, July 1935 to January 1937 [1]

Half-month ending—	Average hourly earnings	Half-month ending—	Average hourly earnings
1935:	*Cents*	1936:	*Cents*
Cumulative to Dec. 31	41.7	July 31	50.8
1936:		Aug. 31	50.7
Jan. 31	41.3	Sept. 30	51.0
Feb. 29	41.8	Oct. 31	50.4
Mar. 31	43.2	Nov. 30	50.0
Apr. 30	44.3	Dec. 31	51.1
May 31	45.8	1937:	
June 30	46.0	Jan. 15	51.5

[1] Subject to revision.

Occupational Clubs for Unemployed in Great Britain

THE utilization of the enforced leisure of the unemployed to practical, recreational, and cultural ends is the object of the occupational clubs that have developed throughout Great Britain under the sponsorship and general direction of the National Council of Social Service. That organization has recently issued a report upon the origin and development of the occupational-club movement, and its extent and achievements up to March 1935.[1] Starting during 1931 and 1932 as isolated and unrelated community undertakings on a purely voluntary basis, these occupational clubs were brought under the general direction of the National Council of Social Service late in 1932, at the instance of the Minister of Labor. The Minister offered financial encouragement to the voluntary movement, by placing funds at the disposal of a central agency. While the governmental grants-in-aid have been an important factor in the development of the occupational clubs and their varied activities, the movement has remained essentially local and voluntary in character. At the time the survey was made, 1,500 occupational clubs and centers for the unemployed were functioning throughout Great Britain, with an average membership of over 200,000. In addition to community contributions and Ministry of Labor funds, the unemployed members themselves had by March 1935, contributed a total of more than £20,000 to the maintenance of their clubs.

Purpose and Character of Occupational Clubs

THE occupational club is defined in the report under review as one "in which men, and in many cases women too, can find not only the fellowship and social life to be found in ordinary clubs, but also, and more particularly, the opportunity and equipment for such club activities as craft work of many kinds, educational lectures and discussions, musical work, * * * dramatic work and physical training."

Club premises at first were makeshifts, consisting often of abandoned and dilapidated buildings. Reconditioning and decorating were carried out by the unemployed members. In other cases clubs have built new quarters for themselves on land and with materials secured for them by the local committees sponsoring the undertaking. Many clubs, the report states, are now in very attractive quarters held on a secure tenure. Of 849 clubs for which information was obtained, 185 owned their premises.

Equipment and materials as a rule are provided by the local communities. In areas where unemployment is unusually great and local resources are insufficient to meet the need, grants-in-aid may

[1] National Council of Social Service. Unemployment and Community Service. London, 1936.

be made by the National Council of Social Service, either from the Ministry of Labor fund which it disburses or from voluntary funds raised for the purpose. Government funds, under the terms of the grant, may be used only to meet capital outlays for premises or permanent equipment, and only where the unemployed will be primarily benefited.

Club Activities

THE nature and extent of the various activities of 1,334 clubs for which full information was received by the national council in its survey are indicated in the following table.

Distribution, Membership, and Activities of 1,334 Occupational Clubs for Unemployed in Great Britain, January–March 1935

Geographic area	Membership	Number of clubs	Number of clubs interested in—						
			Craft work	Physical training, etc.	Music	Drama	Debates	Radio	Educational classes
All areas	157,981	1,334	1,121	498	314	206	482	320	315
Men	142,210	1,014	827	403	235	146	382	299	232
Women	15,771	320	294	95	79	60	100	21	83
North:									
Men	45,168	330	259	127	76	46	123	84	73
Women	6,407	122	107	41	18	16	26	4	17
Midlands:									
Men	23,039	145	116	40	30	11	53	51	35
Women	1,863	50	48	13	15	9	21	6	14
South and East England:									
Men	25,800	181	139	68	25	27	81	24	46
Women	1,242	24	22	7	10	8	11	1	4
Wales:									
Men	24,203	189	148	89	85	38	79	55	70
Women	3,759	73	71	9	19	15	22	4	13
Scotland:									
Men	24,000	169	165	79	19	24	46	85	8
Women	2,500	51	46	25	17	12	20	6	35

Craftwork is practiced by most of the occupational clubs. This may be limited to woodwork and cobbling by the men and dressmaking by the women, or it may cover an ambitious program of rug making, metal work, upholstery, and even motor repairing.

The educational and cultural undertakings differ in extent and in the degree of interest and success achieved. They vary from occasional topical discussions to regular classes maintained by the local school authorities or the Workers' Educational Association, and "from the variety show to orchestral concerts and productions of modern drama or Shakespeare."

Unemployed occupational-club members have contributed materially to the carrying out of other community projects, such as constructing recreation grounds and swimming pools, building and equipping open-air nursery schools, and providing equipment for children's homes and holiday rest homes. The occupational club of

Lincoln assisted in establishing the first nursery school in the country, and, according to the report, has since "equipped no less than nine schools elsewhere."

Provision for Training Club Leaders

THE National Council of Social Service is primarily interested in providing leadership for the various local club movements. To that end it established, in 1933, a residential demonstration center for the training of club leaders. Courses last from 3 to 6 weeks. By midsummer of 1935, 850 club members from all parts of Great Britain had taken courses.

Other training centers have since been established, not directly by, but with the cooperation and support of, the National Council of Social Service. One specializes in training for leadership in art and drama and handicrafts, in which 199 men have taken courses lasting about 3 months. Another conducts classes in horticulture and poultry and pig raising, as well as in the more usual fields of weaving, bookbinding, upholstery, and so on. A third is for women, and gives 2-week courses in knitting, dressmaking, rug making, and such club activities as community singing and group dancing. In addition, advice on cooking, hygiene, child welfare, and nursing is offered. Nearly 500 women have taken the work available at this center.

Club members who take the full-time courses at the residential centers contribute as much as they can to their maintenance and instruction from their unemployment benefits or allowances, up to a maximum of 12s. 6d. a week. The remaining cost is met in part by the clubs they represent, and by voluntary funds raised for the purpose, supplemented by the Ministry of Labor grant through the national council.

Financial Aspect of Movement

ALTHOUGH assisted to a considerable extent by Government funds, the occupational-club movement is financed mainly by voluntary effort organized on a local basis. The amount paid out of Ministry of Labor funds during the period from January 1, 1933, to March 31, 1935, included a grant of £33,855 to the national council and regional organizations, to be disbursed by them in the promotion of club work among unemployed workers, and £45,560 given directly to 521 local undertakings, making a total of £79,415.

The council presents a report covering the same period—from the inception of the movement in January 1933 to March 31, 1935—showing a total voluntary fund raised by local groups, clubs, and other sources, of £352,565. To this the council adds estimates of unascertained amounts that have gone into the movement during that time which increases the total raised by voluntary effort to more than £400,000. Moreover, additional contributions to the movement have

been made in the form of gifts of land or premises, reductions of rent and of lighting and heating charges, and gifts in kind. A small part of the income of the occupational clubs, amounting to about £20,000 for the 27 months, came from the unemployed club members themselves, who normally pay 1d. per week membership dues.

At the same time, Government assistance has been essential to the growth of the movement. It has made possible a higher standard of group activity by a national coordination and development of leadership, and it has carried the movement into districts which, because of severe and prolonged unemployment, were too poor to undertake it on their own resources.

LABOR STATISTICS

Activities of the Central Statistical Board

THE wide range of activities of the Central Statistical Board and its increasing practical value as a statistical coordinating and review agency are revealed in its second report, covering the period January 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936. The basic aims of the Central Statistical Board, as set forth in its organic act, are:

(1) To encourage the economical operation of statistical agencies.

(2) To discourage unnecessary burdens upon the public in connection with the collection of data.

(3) To plan and promote improvements in statistical information.

In effecting the first of these aims, the Board has directed its attention toward "(1) discouraging unwise inquiries, (2) eliminating unnecessary questions in inquiries, (3) suggesting methods for decreasing the number of respondents solicited, (4) substituting joint inquiries in place of separate inquiries by two or more agencies, and (5) planning economical tabulations." The Board estimates the direct savings to the regular statistical services as a result of these activities to have been approximately three-fourths of a million dollars over the past 18 months.

Through its aid in the better planning of questionnaires and encouragement of joint inquiries the Board has not only aided in reducing the burden on the persons and business establishments called on for information, but has increased the comparability of statistics prepared by the various agencies and has otherwise improved the Federal Government's statistical output.

Among the principal activities of the Board have been the reporting problems connected with social security, and public assistance and relief. The Social Security Act has created numerous statistical problems, many of which immediately concern the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Chief among these from the Bureau's standpoint are the statistics of employment and pay rolls. Eventually, as a byproduct of the Social Security Board's administrative reports, it should be possible to present much more comprehensive data on employment and pay rolls than are now available. There remain, however, numerous extremely difficult problems to be solved before these reports may be substituted for the present voluntary reports collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. It is in the solution of these problems that the

Central Statistical Board will be of great service to this Bureau as well as to the Social Security Board.

Among the activities to which the Central Statistical Board hopes to give special attention during the coming year are (1) promotion of plans for censuses of employment, unemployment, and income; (2) improvement of information on real estate and construction; (3) securing more adequate data on the business of investment houses and security dealers; (4) promotion of a service to compile abbreviated financial statements of industrial corporations at regular intervals; (5) improvement of information on State and local finances and activities; (6) assistance in the development of a coordinated reporting program for the power industries; (7) promotion of plans for annual sample censuses of agriculture, population, and retail trade.

Other of the Board's increasing activities as outlined in its report include the review of statistical reports and press releases, preparation of a weekly review of the economic situation in the United States, a comprehensive survey of the work and methods of the Bureau of the Census, and cooperation with the Civil Service Commission in improving examinations for economists and statisticians.

WORKERS' EDUCATION

Vocational Education and Vocational Rehabilitation, 1935–36

FOR the fiscal year ended June 30, 1936, enrollments in vocational schools or classes in the United States, including Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, operated under State plans, totaled 1,381,701—an increase of 134,178 over the preceding fiscal year.[1] Of the total students enrolled, about 391,000 were farmers, trade and industrial workers, and homemakers, following evening vocational courses in subjects bearing upon their everyday employment; approximately 334,000 young persons of these three groups were reported registered in part-time classes; and about 656,000 boys and girls were in full-time schools taking agricultural, trade and industrial, or home-economics vocational courses, as shown in table 1.

Table 1.—Enrollment in Vocational Schools or Classes Operated Under State Plans, Year Ended June 30, 1936 [1]

Type of school	Enrollment, 1935–36				Increase or decrease from 1935			
	Total	Agricultural	Trade and industrial	Home economics	Total	Agricultural	Trade and industrial	Home economics
All types	1,381,701	347,728	579,971	454,002	+134,178	+18,361	+43,039	+72,778
Evening	391,168	109,374	127,798	153,996	−19,826	−803	−36,658	+17,635
Part-time	334,513	22,401	275,032	37,080	+53,253	−1,531	+56,448	−1,664
All-day	656,020	215,953	177,141	262,926	+100,751	+20,695	+23,249	+56,807

[1] Provisional figures.

In table 2 the total enrollments in vocational schools and classes under State plans are presented by years from 1929 to 1936. Substantial increases from year to year are shown except for the years 1933 and 1934 which show decreases. For 1935 and 1936 the increases were respectively 128,383 and 134,178—the highest in the 8-year period.

[1] Provisional figures. The data in this article are taken from the Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education to the Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education, year ended June 30, 1936.

Table 2.—Enrollment in Vocational Schools Operated Under State Plans, by Years, 1929–36

Year	Total		Agricultural	Trade and industrial	Home economics
	Number	Increase			
1929	1,047,976	+48,945	171,466	627,397	249,113
1930	1,064,536	+16,560	193,325	633,153	238,058
1931	1,117,556	+53,020	237,200	602,755	277,601
1932	1,176,162	+58,606	257,255	579,591	339,316
1933	1,150,327	−25,835	265,978	537,512	346,837
1934	1,119,140	−31,187	289,361	486,058	343,721
1935	1,247,523	+128,383	329,367	536,932	381,224
1936 [1]	1,381,701	+134,178	347,728	579,971	454,002

[1] Provisional figures.

Table 3 records the expenditures for vocational education under State plans from 1929 to 1936, and shows an increase from 1935 to 1936, in Federal, State, and local funds combined, of over $4,000,000.

Table 3.—Expenditures of Federal, State, and Local Money Under State Plans for Vocational Education, 1929–36

Year	Expenditure from—		Increase (+) or decrease (−) in expenditure from—	
	Federal funds	State and local funds	Federal funds	State and local funds
1929	$6,878,530	$20,595,776	+$47,078	+$1,701,467
1930	7,404,293	22,504,675	+525,693	+1,908,900
1931	7,978,[illegible]	24,164,463	+574,506	+1,659,787
1932	8,414,[illegible]	24,987,569	+436,105	+823,106
1933	7,728,21[illegible]	22,398,643	−686,589	−2,588,926
1934	6,950,94[illegible]	21,236,209	−777,300	−1,162,434
1935	9,371,980	19,917,943	+2,421,035	−1,318,266
1936 [1]	9,748,925	23,678,909	+376,945	+3,760,966

[1] Provisional figures.

Vocational Rehabilitation Activities

Over 10,000 physically disabled civilians were restored to employment as self-supporting persons in 1936 in the 45 States cooperating in the rehabilitation program—an increase of 916 as compared with the preceding year.

The substantial increases in the number of rehabilitations in the last 3 years may be attributed in part to the allocations made through the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and the Works Progress Administration, and more recently through an additional appropriation of $841,000 per annum under the Federal Social Security Act. These funds have been apportioned to the States in accordance with their population, their needs, and their ability to use the funds effectively.

The number rehabilitated by years from 1929 to 1936 is reported in table 4, from which it will be noted that the total rehabilitations for the latter fiscal year show an increase of over 122 percent as compared with those of the fiscal year 1929.

Table 4.—Number of Disabled Persons Vocationally Rehabilitated, and Number in Process of Rehabilitation (Live Roll of Cases) at End of Year, by Years, 1929–36

Year ended June 30	Rehabilitated during year			Live roll, June 1930			
	Total	Male	Female	Total	In preparation status [1]	Prepared, awaiting placement	At work, being followed up
1929	4,645	3,893	752	16,787	15,821	(2)	966
1930	4,612	3,761	851	20,298	19,118	(2)	1,180
1931	5,138	4,118	1,020	23,714	20,434	2,414	866
1932	5,550	4,367	1,183	27,403	23,387	3,327	689
1933	5,613	4,432	1,181	30,619	25,304	4,566	749
1934	8,062	6,319	1,743	37,681	31,530	4,729	1,422
1935	9,422	7,527	1,895	40,941	31,064	8,171	1,706
1936 [3]	10,338	8,152	2,186	44,625	31,434	11,064	2,127

[1] Includes number "eligible and feasible under advisement", "in training", "undergoing physical restoration or being fitted with appliance", and "training interrupted."
[2] Not separately reported. Included as "in preparation status."
[3] Provisional figures.

The total amount expended for vocational rehabilitation, from Federal, State, and local funds, for the year ended June 30, 1936, was $2,602,676 [2]—Approximately 75 percent above the expenditure for the fiscal year 1929.

Special Problems in Vocational Education and Vocational Rehabilitation

AMONG the special problems with which the promoters and administrators of vocational education were faced in the fiscal year 1936 were the following:

1. The relief of unemployment through occupational-adjustment training.
2. Training of youth 14 to 16 and 18 years of age, barred from employment by law and under policies adopted by employers.
3. Training of apprentices for the skilled trades.
4. Occupational adjustment training.
5. Adult training.
6. New fields of training.

The particular problems confronting State rehabilitation services in the vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons are (1) those connected with the preparation of handicapped individuals for employment, and (2) those involved in securing jobs for these individuals after they have been prepared for employment.

About 60 percent of the handicapped who can be rehabilitated are young people without vocational experience, but in the great majority of the States there is no provision for the particular educational facilities required for the fundamental education and prevocational training of handicapped children. The matter of providing funds for the living expenses of disabled persons who must be given special

[2] Provisional figure.

vocational training constitutes another difficulty. Only a few States have special appropriations for these expenses.

Growing competition for employment tends toward the elimination of larger and larger numbers of handicapped people.

According to the report under review, training for those needing rehabilitation will have to include skills in several jobs and will have to be more thorough than it is at the present time. Furthermore, compensation laws will have to be amended to provide that compensation for second injury will be met by the State rather than by either the employer or the employee. Provision will have to be made also to employ in State-maintained sheltered workshops handicapped persons who are unable to secure private employment.

COOPERATION

Membership and Business of Farmers' Cooperative Purchasing Associations, 1935–36

BUSINESS estimated at $254,000,000 was transacted during the 1935–36 marketing season by the more than 2,000 farmers' cooperative purchasing associations. These associations, which had an estimated total membership of 950,000, each did either a wholesale or a retail business or both. The farm supplies sold by them during the season were valued at $247,000,000, and in addition farm products valued at $7,000,000 were sold. A recent report of the Farm Credit Administration [1] gives data on the operations of the farmers' cooperative associations in the 1935–36 marketing season, from which the information in this article is taken.

Six States had more than 100 active purchasing associations each. They were Minnesota (211), Wisconsin (181), New York (160), Nebraska (146), Iowa (143), and Missouri (131). The estimated membership in the various States ranged from 43,000 to 100,000, Minnesota having the largest membership (100,000), followed by Indiana (83,000), Illinois (80,000), Iowa (75,000), Wisconsin (70,000), and Nebraska (60,000), the other States having 50,000 or less. The following States did a business of over $15,000,000 each: New York ($42,000,000), Minnesota ($20,020,000), Massachusetts and Missouri ($16,400,000 each), Wisconsin ($15,800,000), and Illinois ($15,220,000).

Table 1 shows the number of associations, estimated total membership, and estimated amount of business of farmers' cooperative purchasing associations in the marketing season of 1935–36, by geographic divisions and States.

[1] U. S. Farm Credit Administration. Cooperative Division. Statistics of Farmers' Marketing and Purchasing Associations, 1935–36 Marketing Season, by R. H. Elsworth. Miscellaneous Report No. 12. Washington, 1937.

Table 1.—Estimated Membership and Business of Farmers' Purchasing Associations, by Geographic Divisions and States, 1935–36 Marketing Season

Geographic division and State	Associations [1]		Estimated membership [2]		Estimated business	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Amount	Percent
Geographic division: [3]						
West North Central	849	40.2	338,000	35.6	$67,890,000	26.7
East North Central	463	21.9	303,000	31.9	61,810,000	24.3
Middle Atlantic	260	12.3	75,000	7.9	49,850,000	19.6
New England	91	4.3	75,500	7.9	23,590,000	9.3
Pacific	106	5.0	28,500	3.0	20,500,000	8.1
South Atlantic	85	4.0	46,300	4.9	14,350,000	5.7
West South Central	86	4.1	36,000	3.8	5,880,000	2.3
Mountain	100	4.8	26,500	2.8	6,470,000	2.6
East South Central	72	3.4	21,200	2.2	3,660,000	1.4
Total	2,112	100.0	950,000	100.0	254,000,000	100.0
State: [3]						
New York	160	7.6	44,000	4.6	42,000,000	16.5
Minnesota	211	10.0	100,000	10.5	20,020,000	7.9
Wisconsin	181	8.6	70,000	7.4	15,800,000	6.2
Iowa	143	6.8	75,000	7.9	10,820,000	4.3
Illinois	94	4.4	80,000	8.4	15,220,000	6.0
Indiana	76	3.6	83,000	8.8	13,930,000	5.5
Missouri	131	6.2	43,000	4.5	16,400,000	6.5
Nebraska	146	6.9	60,000	6.3	8,670,000	3.4
Massachusetts	13	.6	60,000	6.3	16,400,000	6.4
Ohio	61	2.9	50,000	5.3	10,200,000	4.0
Others	896	42.4	285,000	30.0	84,540,000	33.3
Total	2,112	100.0	950,000	100.0	254,000,000	100.0

[1] Includes independent local associations, federations, large-scale centralized associations, sales agencies, and independent service-rendering associations, but not including subsidiaries, nor associations only renting property.
[2] Includes members, contract members, shareholders, shippers, consignors, and patrons.
[3] Listed according to relative importance as determined by adding the percentages for number of associations listed, estimated membership, and estimated business.

In addition to the cooperative purchasing done by the farmers' purchasing associations, farm supplies of the estimated value of $68,431,000 were purchased in the 1935–36 season by 2,360 farmers' marketing associations for their members. The number of such marketing associations handling the principal commodities, and the value of the supplies handled, were as follows:

	Number of associations	*Value of supplies*
Grain	1,096	$29,187,000
Dairy products	757	7,927,000
Fruits and vegetables	335	13,022,000
Livestock	57	1,351,000
Others	115	16,944,000

The total purchasing business done by farmers' cooperative associations in the 1935–36 season therefore amounted to over $315,000,000—$247,000,000 by the purchasing societies and $68,431,000 by the marketing societies.

The extent of the farmers' cooperative marketing and purchasing movement, and the volume of business thereof, during the 1935–36 season, are shown in table 2.

Table 2.—Farmers' Marketing and Purchasing Associations, Estimated Membership and Business, by Commodity Groups, 1935–36 Marketing Season

Group	Associations listed [1]		Estimated membership [2]		Estimated business [3]	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Amount	Percent
Marketing:						
Dairy	2,270	21.6	720,000	19.7	$520,000,000	28.3
Grain (also dry beans, rice)	3,010	28.7	610,000	16.7	360,000,000	19.6
Livestock	1,040	9.9	600,000	16.4	250,000,000	13.6
Fruits and vegetables	1,063	10.1	166,000	4.5	212,000,000	11.5
Cotton and products	311	3.0	300,000	8.2	110,000,000	6.0
Poultry and products	154	1.5	93,000	2.5	69,000,000	3.7
Wool and mohair	114	1.1	51,400	1.4	11,000,000	.6
Tobacco	14	.1	60,000	1.6	11,500,000	.6
Nuts	52	.5	16,000	.4	13,100,000	.7
Miscellaneous [4]	360	3.4	93,600	2.6	29,400,000	1.6
Total marketing	8,388	79.9	2,710,000	74.0	1,586,000,000	86.2
Purchasing	2,112	20.1	950,000	26.0	254,000,000	13.8
Total marketing and purchasing	10,500	100.0	3,660,000	100.0	1,840,000,000	100.0

[1] Includes independent local associations, federations, large-scale centralized associations, sales agencies, and independent service-rendering associations, but not including subsidiaries, nor associations only-renting property.

[2] Includes members, contract members, shareholders, shippers, consignors, and patrons.

[3] Some associations engaged primarily in marketing also engage in purchasing, and some associations engaged primarily in purchasing engage in marketing. The purchasing business handled by the marketing associations amounted to $68,000,000 and the marketing business done by the purchasing associations amounted to $7,000,000. The final figures after making proper adjustments are marketing $1,525,000,000, purchasing $315,000,000, total $1,840,000,000.

[4] Includes cooperative service organizations serving marketing and purchasing associations, such as cooperative auditing, management, and trucking associations.

HOUSING CONDITIONS

Cooperative Housing in Europe

COOPERATIVE housing organizations in Europe have provided better homes and greater conveniences at a lower cost over a period of years than equivalent dwelling units provided by private builders, according to the report of the commission appointed by the President to study cooperatives in Europe. An analysis of this phase of the cooperative movement is contained in the commission's report [1] recently submitted to the President.

Cooperative housing activities were found in all the countries visited during the course of the inquiry, namely, England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland. These organizations varied greatly in their objectives, form of organization, and method of operation. Some were found to be closely related to the early form of building and loan associations. In Denmark, for instance, one society accumulates its funds from the savings of members, and determines from time to time by drawing lots which member is to construct his house with the accumulated savings of the members. When houses have been built for all the members the society is dissolved. As a whole the English housing societies are more like American building and loan societies than real cooperative societies.

Many European housing cooperatives finance housing construction through the savings of their members, but probably the majority of them utilize either private or public credit for the greater part of the necessary capital, supplementing it with the individual savings of the members. In one instance, however, loans are secured by individual societies from the national cooperative federation, the notes of the individual members serving as security for the loans.

Federations of cooperative housing societies have been formed in some countries on a nation-wide scale, and in others there are federations of societies located in one city or in a few large cities. Frequently, strong cooperative societies organize a separate subsidiary society for each of a number of projects. In this way financial support can be given to individual societies, and technical assistance to all, and materials and equipment can be bought in large quantities. This

[1] United States Inquiry on Cooperative Enterprise. Report of the Inquiry on Cooperative Enterprise in Europe, 1937. Washington, 1937.

plan, according to the report, provides more efficient management and yet gives to the individual project greater self-government, and makes for a definite sense of responsibility on the part of the tenant members.

Dwellings constructed by housing cooperatives are in some instances sold to individual members and in others to nonmembers as well, while many societies rent such dwellings to their members. The rental plan permits tenants to move freely, but is not an advantage to the cooperative society in times of falling prices because of competition with privately owned property. Tenants in cooperatively built dwellings, it is stated, generally have better homes, more conveniences, and lower rents than tenants in privately constructed houses.

Government control of some sort is common in most countries. In Stockholm the city is represented on the board of directors. In England such societies must submit periodic reports to the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, who has general supervision.

A great impetus to cooperative housing has been the furnishing of financial and other aid by States and cities. Outright subsidies and grants were a feature of early post-war years, being designed to overcome the housing shortage. This form of assistance is no longer common, aid now being granted generally in the form of low-cost building credit, leases of public building sites for long terms and at low cost, and in some cases by giving technical assistance or by encouraging or organizing housing societies. Exemption from taxation and stamp dues, from payment of interest for a certain period, and often from city transportation taxes on building materials are other forms of public aid.

Guaranty by the State or city of loans to cooperatives is common. This serves to provide capital at a lower interest rate than would be obtainable otherwise, and the liability of the public authority is only contingent.

The following conclusions were arrived at in the report under consideration:

(1) Cooperative housing in Europe has not reached the lowest-income group. There is no evidence even where subsidies have been available that the unskilled workers and other low-income groups have been served to any appreciable degree through cooperative housing organizations. It must be remembered that usually deposits are required of the occupant in a cooperative project to supply equity money. As a result of this and other factors, the occupants of cooperatives are, in the main, skilled-artisan and white-collar workers.

(2) An important contribution of the cooperative movement lies in its actual and potential accomplishments of improvement in planning and designing. In some countries cooperatives have led the way for private initiative with respect to modernization of housing design and construction.

(3) It is unquestionable that in the early post-war period, cooperatives served an important function in a number of countries in helping to overcome serious housing shortages. Their activities were naturally stimulated by means of sub-

sidies and other financial aids, and as a result a firm foundation should have been laid for the future expansion of a general cooperative movement in housing.

(4) Cooperation in housing has attained its highest development in those countries where the social philosophy of the people provided fertile soil. In some countries, cooperation in housing has been but one division of an extensive cooperative movement embracing many other aspects of economic activity. As a result, it has received both moral and financial support from the cooperatives of other fields and has had the approbation of a large portion of the citizenry.

(5) There is little doubt that cooperative housing projects have succeeded in providing dwellings at a lower cost over a period of years than private initiative. In many cases a cooperator may in the beginning have to make monthly payments approximating current rent for equivalent facilities, but his payments go in part toward building up an equity and are eventually reduced to the mere cost of upkeep.

(6) It is significant that a substantial proportion of housing cooperatives were organized by persons engaged in the same occupation, as, for instance, building workers and railway employees.

(7) Financial assistance to housing cooperatives has been of major importance. The growth of the movement would undoubtedly have proceeded at a much lower pace except for the provision of mortgage money at low interest rates. The provision of land at low cost has also been highly important. The fact that advances could be secured up to a higher proportion of the value of a project has meant that the equity to be subscribed for by the cooperators has been relatively small, thus broadening the basis of participation.

(8) There is no evidence that private initiative has received any permanent injury by the development of cooperative housing. On the contrary, it is probably true that in some countries it has been benefited by virtue of the fact that much of the technical pioneering in the field of large-scale housing has been done by the cooperatives. Housing needs generally are so great that the relatively small cooperative development must be considered more as a stimulus for better housing than as a narrowing down of private initiative.

(9) One of the most outstanding phenomena of the cooperative housing movement in Europe is the fact that in most cases, regardless of the assistance granted by governments and municipalities, in recent years the number of dwellings constructed by cooperatives has declined rapidly, with a corresponding increase noted in private construction.

(10) In addition, where the cooperative housing has been in terms of building and loan association activities, the movement has been more persistent in character, and today is flourishing. Great Britain is a notable example of this.

(11) The cooperative housing movement on the whole has not tended to supply the lower-paid wage earners with proper housing. Mr. K. Bjerregaard, head of the City Real Estate Department of Copenhagen, in his publication of 1930, Building Activities of the Copenhagen Municipality, states that the question "whether comprehensive activity during the past 15 years has provided satisfactory housing conditions in Copenhagen" can be answered in the negative, pointing to the existing surplus of vacant apartments and to the large number of old and unhealthful living quarters that are still occupied. He states that it will be necessary to provide living quarters sufficient to end the problem of the homeless families now temporarily taken care of; and that satisfactory quarters must be provided for persons living in unhealthful apartments in the center of the city, and in shacks in suburban districts, before housing conditions can be characterized as normal.

(12) There seems to have been an utter disregard in Europe, as in this country, of provision of sanitary dwellings for the lowest-paid wage earner. Such apartments and dwellings as have been constructed have been of a character requiring

(even with low interest and amortization and other grants) a rate for rent which such a workman is unable to pay. Attention is called to the slum-clearing projects in at least one large American city where tenements have been torn down, new apartments constructed with steam heat, elevator service, and most modern convenience, the rate for such apartments, even upon a nonprofit basis, being such as only skilled artisans or the better class of office workers can afford to pay, the net result of which has been greater crowding in many of the tenements left standing.

Adequate comparable data were not available for the different countries, but some of the features of cooperative housing in the countries visited are here set forth.

Norway

COOPERATIVE housing in Norway has been undertaken mainly since the war. Up to 1928 only 791 dwelling units in 56 communes had been built. State subsidies up to 20 percent of the building in some sections were formerly granted, but no State subsidies are granted now. Some municipalities, however, still make grants. A number of cities guarantee a certain percentage of the mortgage.

Sweden

THE cooperative housing movement in Sweden is strongly organized. Its aim is to provide 25 percent of the houses in Sweden. The 10 percent it is now building has influenced rents materially and helped in raising housing standards and in providing many conveniences not formerly available to workers.

A cooperative housing society formed in Stockholm in 1923—the Tenants' Savings Bank and Building Society, called the HSB—has developed into a national federation of housing societies, which at the end of 1935 had more than 16,000 members, and by the middle of 1936 owned real estate valued at the equivalent of $35,000,000.

When a building is constructed by the parent society it is transferred to a housing society for that particular project. Four types of houses are now being built: Type A includes the majority of the houses built, the deposit required of the occupants being 10 percent of the value of the real estate; type B includes buildings on which the deposit required is 5 percent of the real-estate value and the apartments in which are sold subject to certain city regulations; type C comprises benevolent institutions, the apartment tenants not making any deposits and the renting of the apartments being subject to certain city regulations; type D buildings are constructed in association with the city of Stockholm and are intended for the larger families (at least three children) in the lower-income group. The State contributes from 30 to 50 percent of the rent, according to size of family.

The HSB has set up a center for the purchase of building materials and also manufactures such materials as plaster, stucco, cabinet work, etc. It provides for its members the services of a savings bank, and sells "building bonds", which pay interest at 4½ percent every 6 months and are in four denominations—50, 100, 500, and 1,000 kroner.[2]

About 60 percent of the estimated cost of construction is financed by bank loans, 30 to 35 percent by savings-bank deposits and working capital of parent and subsidiary societies, and the remaining 10 or 5 percent by the basic deposits of the members. The general plan is for the parent society to loan the subsidiary company, on the completion of the building, an amount equal to the deposits of the members, this loan to be amortized by the subsidiary society within 20 or 25 years. The amortization payments are included in the monthly payments by the tenants.

The HSB has formed a special body, which operates a so-called repurchase fund (made up of annual contributions) for the purchase of apartments when members must dispose of them because of unemployment, illness, death, or need, thus protecting the interests of both the members and the society.

Denmark

In Denmark the construction of dwellings for people of moderate incomes has been encouraged by laws remitting taxes and interest for certain periods and by grants and loans. The housing societies to which loans are granted are not in the strict sense cooperative societies, but private organizations. The cooperation of the individual applies only to the extent of his membership, which is not necessary to obtain housing through the society. Municipal guaranties of at least a portion of the loan are required by law, and from 10 to 20 percent of the purchase price is presumed to be assumed by the applicant. The buildings constructed by housing societies have been mostly apartment houses. The apartments are not sold but are leased to the tenants in accordance with varying rules, the most important of which follow. The tenants become shareholders of the society, but may sell their shares and still remain in the apartment or move and keep their shares. Shareholders have some voice in the management and are not subject to arbitrary cancelation of the lease. Tenants may acquire bonds issued against a loan on the property, or deposit receipts, which makes their tenancy secure but gives them no voice in the management. Members have a fairly well-secured right to live in an apartment at a rental corresponding to their capital deposits and a proportionate part of the expenses of the property.

Government loans for housing are governed by laws which fix a charge therefor, including interest (4½ or 5 percent) and amortization

[2] Average exchange rate of krona in 1936=25.63 cents.

payments (1 to 3½ percent), and one law includes administration charges (0.2 percent). Amortization is to be completed in from 37 to 82 semiannual payments. Municipal loans bear interest varying from 3 to 6 percent and run for long terms—from 30 to 40 years.

Switzerland

COOPERATIVE housing in Switzerland began after 1900, and by 1932 there were 130 societies, besides 100 others classed as a public utility but of the same nature. In 1933 the housing societies had 10,000 members, who had provided 8,500,000 Swiss francs[3] for building construction.

Cooperative housing societies were motivated, in providing apartments at a price which a workingman could afford to pay, by the increased cost of construction. By 1932 these cooperatives, with State and municipal aid, had lowered rents by 200 or 300 francs and even by 400 francs in some cases. Besides apartment and other houses for workers with small incomes, detached houses and garden cities have been constructed for middle-class citizens and workers.

Since 1925, State aid has been limited to houses for large families. Municipalities have encouraged the work of housing societies by loans and grants.

Czechoslovakia

COOPERATIVE societies form the greater part of the so-called public-benefit housing organizations in Czechoslovakia. An essential feature of a public-benefit housing cooperative is its nonprofit character. Bylaws must restrict dividends to not more than 5 percent of paid-in share value, and members have no legal claim against the property of the society if their membership lapses or the society dissolves. In the latter case the net assets of the society must be employed for further public-benefit housing purposes. Also, officials in such societies must have no material interest in their operation except to obtain dwellings for themselves.

The law provides that the buildings erected by housing societies must be "buildings with small dwellings." Such buildings are of four kinds, viz, one-, two-, or possibly three-family houses, for sale to members; apartment houses owned by the society, the apartments in which are leased to the members; houses with structurally separate rooms for single persons; and lodging houses with dormitory lodgings for transients.

There is no single central organization of housing cooperatives in Czechoslovakia. There are, however, 27 auditing associations uniting the local societies, and 20 of these auditing societies are combined in 3 larger associations. Auditing of cooperative societies is compulsory.

[3] Average exchange rate of Swiss franc in 1936=30.19 cents.

Public-benefit housing cooperatives are under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Welfare.

At the end of 1935 there were 1,418 active cooperative housing societies of all kinds, as compared with 1,633 in 1932. The most recent study of housing cooperatives by the State Statistical Office was made for the year 1930 and was published in 1935. Of the 94,462 members of the 717 societies studied, 3.3 percent were farmers, 13.5 percent tradesmen, 22.2 percent laborers, and 52.5 percent office workers. The average paid-in value of a membership share was 215 koruny,[4] and the average shares per member were 2.4, the total value being 516 koruny; and the average loan per member was 6,082 koruny. At the end of the year studied, these 717 cooperatives owned 8,604 family houses, 2,181 apartment houses, and 7 houses for single persons, a total of 38,809 dwellings.

In addition to general government aid for housing, such as guaranteed loans, etc., public-benefit housing cooperatives are granted special privileges in the form of lower special income tax, surtaxes, and transfer fees, and longer exemption from house and rent taxes.

France

In May 1935 there were 460 active cooperative housing societies in France, as compared with 555 in May of the preceding year. Instead of engaging in actual construction, these societies evidently finance the buying of individual houses by their members. There is a national federation of cooperative housing societies, which strives to assist the low-income group.

Government loans in the amount of 112,550,800 francs[5] had been made to 67 societies up to the end of 1934.

Great Britain

While 3,000,000 new homes have been built in England and Wales since the war, the part taken by the cooperative housing societies has been relatively small and in connection with building societies' activities, rather than as a separate movement.

Most of the low-cost housing has been constructed by cities, often with government aid. Building societies in England are more like the American building and loan societies than like cooperative housing societies. Instead of undertaking cooperative ownership and management, they finance low-cost individual houses. There are many mutual building societies, which, as regards the one purpose of buying or building dwellings, are similar to the cooperative credit societies common in Europe. A substantial number of the houses constructed in England and Wales without government aid since 1919 have been sponsored by the building societies.

[4] Average exchange rate of koruna in 1936=4.01 cents.
[5] Average exchange rate of franc in 1936=6.11 cents.

The Cooperative Permanent Building Society, which was formed in 1884, operates as follows:

> The society concentrates on making advances in respect of working-class properties. It has seldom, if ever, made any advance in respect of large houses, and then only when the amounts required were small. At the outset it did make advances upon business premises to a few cooperative societies, but with that exception it makes no advance on business premises other than small shops, and then only under special circumstances. Every effort is made to meet the peculiar difficulties which beset working-class life.

Working-Class Dwellings in Montreal [1]

A SURVEY of 1,376 dwellings in Montreal, chosen at random and including both those in good and those in bad condition, showed that in general working-class dwellings were on one floor and consisted of three to five rooms, excluding toilet and bathing facilities. The survey covered 561 dwellings of 4 rooms; 312 of 3 rooms; 227 of 5 rooms; 116 of 6 rooms; 93 of 2 rooms; 1 of 10 rooms; and 1 of 1 room; the remaining 65 had 7, 8, or 9 rooms. All units had kitchens or their equivalent, but only 678 had living rooms, 355 dining rooms, and 412 had refrigerators. Practically all were stove heated; only 19 had furnaces. Inside water connections were found throughout, but hot-water faucets were notably absent, only 129 dwellings having them. The almost complete lack of bathrooms was an outstanding characteristic of these homes but was especially noticeable in the older sections of the city. Altogether, 1,056 units were without this equipment and 320 had such facilities. While toilets were general, they failed to meet modern hygienic standards. Usually natural lighting prevailed but some dark rooms were found, particularly in ground-floor apartments. In 143 instances one or more rooms were indirectly lighted and 18 had no lighting of any kind. Electricity was the prevailing method of lighting in use, but 7 dwellings used gas, 63 used oil lamps, and 2 used candles.

Contrary to expectations overcrowding did not appear to be a major difficulty in the houses inspected. The 100 such cases were scattered geographically, but on the whole occupancy was average and normal. The 1,376 dwellings had 6,036 occupants and 4,229 rooms, excluding kitchens and bathrooms; this represented an average density of 1.42 occupants per room.

Housewives commented on the difficulty of keeping old houses clean, and in many cases the degree of cleanliness inside and outside left much to be desired. Approximately 600 dwellings were rated fair on this point and 200 as bad. Over 400 dilapidated units were occupied and

[1] Data are from Montreal Metropolitan Commission, Department of Planning and Research, report no. 1 of a cross section survey of working-class dwellings in the city of Montreal and Verdun, Montreal, 1937 (mimeographed).

the reason given for residence was that the tenants could not afford higher rents.

Rentals ranged from $8 to $16 per month in most cases. Thus, 100 rented for $8 or less; 750 for from $8 to $12; and 340 for from $12 to $16. Rents of more than 700 families were being paid either wholly or in part by the Relief Commission. This, it is stated in the original report, indicates that over 50 percent of the tenants were unemployed and adds:

> It is interesting to note that the majority of the wage earners (unemployed) were ordinarily employed in one phase or another of the building trades. This serves to confirm the fact that unemployment in the building trades is still more severe than in other occupations.

Removals from one house to another were found to be amazingly prevalent. Many cases of 10 to 15 moves in 3 years were reported. One family moved 30 times and another 50 during the same period. The reason given for moving was most frequently cold dwellings or high cost of heating. The tenants surveyed had been in their current lodgings for 1 year or less in 600 cases; for 2 years in 200; and for 3 years in 130. Twenty had occupied the same dwelling for 20 years or more. Where the periods were longer it was usually because of home ownership. The center of the city as a place to live was favored by 849 families, the suburbs by 94, and the country by 65.

The authors of this study believe it gives a fair picture of average housing conditions. This survey, which is regarded as extensive, is to be followed by an intensive canvass of several blocks, house by house, in order to determine prevailing conditions in areas believed ripe for a slum-reclamation program. The study from which these data were taken was made between December 28, 1936, and January 9, 1937, by questionnaire incorporating what were believed to be the best points in surveys of other cities. Investigators were chosen from students in the social sciences and engineering and specially trained for the work to secure uniformity in the method of approach.

Housing Progress in Scotland

IN Scotland the number of working-class houses built from 1919 to the end of 1936, either with or without State assistance, totaled 259,194, according to the latest report of the Department of Health.[1] Of this number, 215,113 dwellings were constructed with the aid of the Government. Individual units provided by local authorities in 1936 exceeded the total for any other year except 1935, and private industry made the best showing in its housing activities, of any year since 1919. Progress also continued in the reconstruction and improvement of existing dwellings. Costs per unit tended to rise in 1936, partly because of higher prices for labor and commodities but more especially because of the fact that relatively larger and better

[1] Scotland. Department of Health. Eighth annual report, 1936. Edinburgh, 1937.

houses were being constructed than in preceding years. Unfavorable aspects of the housing situation include the growing labor shortage and the high proportion of overcrowded accommodations.

Under the impetus of the 1935 housing legislation, the report of the Department of Health states, local authorities intensified their efforts to provide housing. Their activity was greater than at any time since 1919. On the basis of needs disclosed in the survey of overcrowding made in 1935, there was a 65-percent increase in contracts approved by local authorities, the number rising from 16,582 in 1935 to 27,281 in the following year. The rate of completion of houses was reduced, however, as a result of a general shortage in building labor. Between the end of 1935 and the end of the following year, the number of houses under construction by local authorities increased from 17,040 to 20,178, and the number approved but not begun rose from 5,174 to the unprecedented level of 13,143.

While an increase in building was to be expected, the report continues, "the great increase in the number of houses approved but not begun can be regarded only as a disturbing manifestation of the labor shortage." Bricklayers were especially scarce. The shortage was apparent in 1935 but became very marked in 1936. Advice from various localities called attention to the labor scarcity, but it was particularly acute in the industrial belt. A few authorities arranged for overtime work and reimbursed brickwork contractors for the added costs incurred owing to the difference between regular and overtime rates of pay. A number of small increases in the wage scale were made in 1935 and 1936. At the end of the latter year the various Government departments concerned with public works and industrial and commercial building had under active consideration the whole question of the labor shortage.

As indicated by table 1, showing the number of working-class houses completed by local authorities and private enterprise in each year from 1919 to 1936, substantial progress was made in the latter year notwithstanding the problems that were being faced.

Table 1.—Working-Class Houses (Including Hostels) Completed in Scotland, by Years, 1919–36

Year	Number completed by—			Year	Number completed by—		
	Local authorities	Private enterprise	Total		Local authorities	Private enterprise	Total
Period 1919 to 1936	175,836	83,358	259,194	1927	15,815	6,079	21,894
				1928	14,747	5,052	19,799
1919				1929	14,316	4,841	19,157
1920	817			1930	7,918	4,186	12,104
1921	4,342	[1] 9,045	[1] 33,082	1931	8,315	3,804	12,119
1922	9,463			1932	11,631	5,643	17,274
1923	6,451			1933	15,808	10,439	26,247
1924	2,964			1934	15,188	9,202	24,390
1925	4,822	4,611	9,433	1935	18,814	6,578	25,392
1926	8,381	6,550	14,931	1936	16,044	7,328	23,372

[1] Estimated number.

With the exception of 1925, when private building was responsible for almost as many houses as local authorities, the construction by local authorities has been far in excess of that privately undertaken. Of the 175,836 houses completed by local authorities from 1919 to 1936, 108,933 built with State assistance were under ordinary schemes, including decrowding, and 63,127 were slum-clearance projects. In all, 3,776 units were completed by local authorities without State aid. By private enterprise, including public-utility societies, 43,053 were built with State assistance and 40,305 without.

Table 2 gives the amounts of exchequer subsidy paid for housing under the various laws, beginning with 1919, for the period 1919–36 inclusive, and for 1936 separately. The payments are for all housing subsidy, including houses erected by local authorities, private enterprise, and public-utility societies.

Table 2.—Amounts of Exchequer Subsidy Paid for Housing in Scotland, During Year 1936 and for the Period, 1919–36

Act	Total payments	
	1936	1919–36
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
All acts, 1919 to end of 1936	2,423,924 9 6	23,254,524 16 3
Housing, town planning, etc. (Scotland), Act, 1919	768,182 4 2	13,866,766 2 3
Housing (additional powers) act, 1919		550,296 13 4
Housing, etc., act, 1923:		
Local authorities	24,260 0 0	254,035 10 0
Private enterprise	150,347 5 0	1,141,172 17 9
Slum-clearance schemes	128,271 11 10	1,106,131 3 5
Housing (financial provisions) act, 1924:		
Local authorities	685,236 0 0	4,721,188 10 0
Private enterprise	73,589 15 0	368,433 15 0
Housing (rural workers) acts, 1926 and 1931	67,454 1 3	237,142 7 6
Housing (Scotland) act, 1930	513,113 12 3	984,993 10 0
Housing (rural authorities) act, 1931	2,902 10 0	8,043 7 0
Housing (financial provisions) (Scotland) act, 1933	6,775 10 0	9,029 0 0
Housing (Scotland) act, 1935	3,792 0 0	3,792 0 0
Demonstration steel houses		3,500 0 0

In addition to the subsidy payments made under the various housing laws, the Government has advanced £1,071,866, 5s. 6d. to the Second Scottish National Housing Co. (housing trust), Limited, for the erection of 2,552 steel houses. Of this sum £16,633, 9s. 6d. had been repaid at the time the report was published.

The national survey of housing made in Scotland during 1935 and 1936 under the housing (Scotland) act of 1935, furnished exact information as to the extent of existing overcrowding, a subject about which certain facts had already been made available in the 1931 census. Having obtained the necessary data as to what localities and what size of dwellings are most crowded, the various local governments are now in a position to develop the plans that will go farthest toward ameliorating substandard conditions.

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In the recent study, overcrowding was measured according to a statutory minimum standard of accommodation, based on the principles of sex separation at age 10 and sufficient space per occupant.[1] At the end of 1936 all but 2 of the 228 housing authorities had submitted reports, and of the 1,146,534 houses investigated, 258,987, representing 22.6 percent, were found overcrowded. This means that in Scotland overcrowding was about six times greater than in England, where the percentage was 3.8, based upon the same definition of overcrowding. As was to be expected, the greatest tenant density was in the industrial belt. The percentages for the four largest cities follow:

	Percent of dwellings overcrowded
Glasgow	29.12
Dundee	23.94
Aberdeen	22.05
Edinburgh	17.17

Overcrowding of over 40 percent was found in a few instances in large towns. In some small places it was as low as 1 to 2 percent.

It was further determined that the great mass of overcrowding was in one- and two-room dwellings, 194,456, or 75.1 percent, of the total overcrowded units being of these sizes, as a result of a national custom of building small units. It is believed that operations under the 1935 housing law will effect a radical change in the small-house tradition. The percentage of small houses has tended to decline for some years and this movement, it is felt, should be accelerated by the erection of new houses to provide for overcrowded families, and the virtual cessation of the building of houses of one and two rooms. To encourage the greatest possible use of existing accommodations, precautions are being taken to prevent the building of hostels for single persons if there is a likelihood that small suites being vacated under the overcrowding standards will be available in sufficient numbers to house single persons. With this in mind, local authorities are being urged to make careful surveys of probable vacancies.

Making the fullest possible use of fit accommodations in rehousing operations, it is estimated that 161,749 units will be needed to do away with overcrowding. As not all houses vacated due to overcrowding will be suitable for accommodating other families living at too great density, the number of houses ultimately needed may exceed this figure. Proposals submitted by a large group of housing authorities for new building, in order to deal with the worst overcrowding first, specified that 59 percent of the new dwellings should have four or more rooms.

[1] See Monthly Labor Review, April 1936, p. 980, for minimum requirements.

FACTORY INSPECTION

Qualifications, Training, and Functions of Factory Inspectors in Various European Countries

TECHNICAL developments in industry have made necessary a corresponding evolution in the objectives of factory inspection. From the exercise of police power in the enforcement of specific acts of limited application, which was its function as first inaugurated, the system of factory inspection by governmental agencies has developed into an effort to administer a broad program of regulation and control of working conditions, particularly as they affect industrial safety and health. In some European countries industrial relations come within the scope of factory inspection.

This expansion of activities and change in viewpoint have in turn called for a specially trained and qualified personnel to discharge the obligations that governments thus assume. Recent studies [1] have shown the extent of specialization and technical training required in several European countries to qualify for the position of factory inspector. In these the point has been emphasized that factory inspectors in Europe constitute a professional group of recognized standing, selected on the basis of education in technical and specialized fields, personal attributes, and experience.

Employment Conditions of Factory Inspectors

As CIVIL servants, factory inspectors in practically all European countries enjoy a permanent status, under a definite system of progressive promotions from the lowest or probationary grade. They are entitled to a stipulated amount of annual leave, and to an annuity upon retirement.

Under the promotion system in operation in Great Britain, a factory inspector enters as a junior inspector and serves a probationary term of 2 years. Thereafter, his first post is as a local district inspector in class II. Promotion from that grade may be conditioned upon the

[1] United States Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards: British Factory Inspection, by John B. Andrews, Washington, 1937 (Bull. No. 11). International Labor Review: January 1935, The Place of the Doctor in Factory Inspection; June 1935, Labor Inspection in Rumania, 1928–31; September 1935, Labor Inspection in Hungary, 1928–33; March 1937, Labor Inspection in Poland, 1928–33. International Association of Governmental Labor Officials: Paper read at 1936 convention, Topeka, Kans., by David Vaage, Chief of the Safety Service of the International Labor Office, Geneva, on Training of Factory Inspectors in Europe.

number of class II inspectors, but normally advancement to class Ib may be expected in 5 years, and from class Ib to class Ia in 11 years. Annual salary increases are granted within the grade if a satisfactory rating is made.

As soon as a local district inspector enters upon his duties he begins to build up a record upon which his future advancement depends. His weekly written reports, which he signs and sends to his division superintendent, are the basis for the confidential report and recommendations of his immediate superior to the head office, which in turn passes the information on to the office of the Secretary of State. This goes into a dozen questions of tact, zeal, ability, initiative, interest in the work as a whole, and willingness to assume responsibility. All of these things are taken into account when promotions are made. Being ranked annually, perhaps as (1) satisfactory, (2) less than satisfactory, or (3) outstanding on all such qualifications, and given an opportunity to reply if reported "less than satisfactory" on as many as two qualifications, tends to keep them keyed up, particularly if it is understood that being marked "outstanding" on as many as two qualifications is likely to rate a promotion as soon as there is opportunity. While seniority counts to some extent, it has been a relatively small factor in promotions in recent years.[2]

The determination of annual promotions in France is made by the Minister of Labor upon the recommendation of a special grading commission composed of two supervisory and two district inspectors who are not eligible to promotion. After a year's probation, permanent appointment is to the fifth and lowest grade, and the line of promotion for district inspectors is to the first grade, from which divisional inspectors are selected.

Public holidays, and annual leave amounting to 36 working days, are granted in the British inspection service during the first 10 years of service, after which the vacation period is increased to 48 working days. Retirement is compulsory at 65 years of age and may be required at 60. The factory inspector then becomes entitled to an annuity, based on salary and length of service, but limited to a maximum of 50 percent of the salary he was receiving when he retired. The retirement fund is noncontributory; that is, the annuity is paid entirely by the Government. If an inspector who has been employed for 5 years or more dies in the service, a gratuity equal to 1 year's salary may be paid to his estate.

Selection and Training of Inspectors

A REGIONAL conference of representatives of the factory-inspection services of western European countries was held at The Hague in October 1935 under the auspices of the International Labor Office. The information dealing with the selection and training of inspection staffs which the conference developed indicates that high personnel standards are general in the countries represented. Selection is by

[2] United States Department of Labor. Division of Labor Standards. British Factory Inspection, by John B. Andrews. Washington, 1937, p. 28.

examination in practically all cases and in several countries a university degree in engineering is a prerequisite to taking the examination. This is true in Belgium, Finland, Italy, Netherlands, Sweden, and, with modifications, in Great Britain. Definite information concerning the present situation in Germany is not available, but so far as is known the requirements formerly set are still in force. Those applying to Prussia called for a degree in engineering or chemistry, 18 months' preliminary training under a factory inspector, and another 18 months' course in law and political science, before the candidate became eligible to apply for examination. Requirements in France and Switzerland are less stringent in the matter of formal schooling, and allow for experience and practical knowledge. In France practical ability must be demonstrated in an examination held at the Conservatory of Arts and Crafts by the actual application of principles and practices of accident prevention, industrial hygiene, etc., to machinery. Great Britain may relax its university requirements in the case of applicants with suitable industrial or other special practical experience, but as a matter of fact it is "practically impossible for anyone to become an inspector who is not a graduate of some one of the first-class colleges or of a recognized school of engineering or medical science."[3] In general, woman applicants are subject to the same qualifications as men, although in some cases, notably Finland and Sweden, knowledge of hygiene, social legislation, and social work is substituted for the education in engineering and other scientific work required of men.

In Switzerland, those who successfully pass the examinations and receive appointments are immediately placed in active service on their own responsibility. Elsewhere among the countries discussed probationary periods are the rule. These range from 6 months in Belgium to 2 years in Great Britain and the Netherlands before receiving the full factory-inspector rating. In Great Britain, after 2 years' probation, the trainee must take a second examination on factory law and sanitary science.

During the probationary period the recruits work with experienced inspectors. Special lecture courses and demonstration work at the British Industrial Museum in London are held for the trainees in the British inspectorate. Printed instructions are sent to them periodically. Not all the probationary period of 2 years is served under direct supervision. At some point during the training period, after taking the course of study and serving an apprenticeship directly under an inspector, the probationer is assigned to cover simple work in the district for the remainder of the 2 years.

The high professional standing of European factory inspectors, particularly of those who are outstanding in their special fields, is

[3] United States Department of Labor. Division of Labor Standards. British Factory Inspection, by John B. Andrews. Washington, 1937, p. 22.

demonstrated by the fact that they are often called upon to lecture before scientific and technical societies, and to contribute to scientific and technical journals. In the latter connection, the prohibition placed upon British factory inspectors by civil service regulations requiring absolute secrecy becomes of interest. Inspectors, even though they may be recognized authorities in their fields, are thereby prohibited from writing for recognized standard publications in other countries concerning their official activities "or even from contributing a chapter to a scientific book." [4]

Functions of Factory Inspectors

THE nature of the training and qualifications demanded of factory inspectors is evidence of the radically altered functions of those agents. They are still, as in the early days of the industrial era, law-enforcement officers with police power. But the policing function has become absorbed in the broader educational and advisory approach to improved working conditions. The technical and scientific aspect of factory inspection, to which special staffs of engineers in various branches of that profession, chemists, and doctors are devoted, is almost wholly educational and advisory. Yet that aspect is a vital part of all important inspection systems, particularly in the highly industrialized countries.

Accident-prevention and safety programs required the services of engineers; therefore technical divisions of inspection services were created. The later effort to control occupational disease called for ventilating engineers, chemists, and physicians, and the inauguration of medical divisions as part of the inspection system. This has actually occurred in many of the industrial countries of Europe. Czechoslovakia, France, and Switzerland, which have not yet organized medical services, are exceptions. A medical advisor attached to the factory inspectorate of the Netherlands has a staff of five doctors under his direction; medical inspectors in Italy have the same status as the engineers; and the Soviet Union has a highly organized industrial medical staff in which the doctors, though subordinate to the labor inspectors, have direct jurisdiction in their own field. In Belgium the chief medical inspector and the chief factory inspector function independently in concurrent jurisdictions.

In Great Britain the three separate branches of the technical staff—medical, electrical, and engineering—are equally under the general authority of the chief inspector of factories and his three deputies. The medical staff consists of a senior inspector and seven inspectors, one of whom is a woman, who are assigned to specified areas. Their duties consist in studying new processes to determine the possible effect upon the health of the workers, investigating actual cases of

[4] United States Department of Labor. Division of Labor Standards. British Factory Inspection, by John B. Andrews. Washington, 1937, p. 29.

industrial poisoning and disease, supervising the enforcement of rules and regulations designed to control occupational-disease hazards, and advising the department on all medical questions. They also supervise the work of the private doctors who are certified to perform certain functions in connection with the administration of the labor laws, such as the physical examination and certification of employed young persons.

The engineering unit, consisting of 10 men located in the London office, is almost wholly advisory. These engineers make special studies of ventilation and machine guarding in dangerous trades and processes, investigate explosions and chemical hazards, and analyze accident reports to determine the effectiveness of safeguards. They serve as advisors to the local factory inspectors in all matters in which their specialized knowledge is of value.

The electrical inspectors constitute a specialized branch of experts dealing with electricity codes and regulations.

Under the British system, the actual enforcement of the factory laws is the function of the local inspector assigned to one of the 91 districts into which the country is divided. The district inspector is solely responsible for the organization and administration of factory inspection in his district, and when the special activities of the technical staffs just discussed are carried into his district, it is with his knowledge and cooperation. In most cases prosecutions for violations are carried on by the local inspector, who acts both as prosecutor and chief witness in the trial.

British factory inspectors are responsible only for the enforcement of the specific legislation embodied in the factories and work-shops acts and the regulations and orders that have grown out of them. Much of British labor law is entirely outside the jurisdiction of the factory-inspection service. On the other hand, the functions and duties of factory inspectors in some of the other European countries include not only the administration and enforcement of the factory acts, but extraneous and in some cases curiously unrelated work as well.

In many European countries the factory inspector, if called upon to do so, must examine and pass upon plans for the erection of new or the remodeling of existing factory buildings, to determine whether or not the buildings as planned will conform to legislative requirements. He must also make any necessary recommendations for alteration or modification of the plans. In Hungary a somewhat similar obligation of the factory inspector is in fact related to legislation for the development of industry. Either by special request, or as part of his ordinary duties, a factory inspector in Hungary may be required to make the surveys necessary before a permit is issued to a new undertaking, and advise on tax exemptions to be allowed to certain enterprises and see that the conditions of the exemptions are fulfilled. He may also be

called upon to check up on the use that is made of machinery imported free of customs duty on specific terms, or to give advice on the issuance of permits to employ foreign workmen.

Conciliation and arbitration and the actual negotiation of collective agreements are an important phase of the work of factory inspectors in Poland. Although no part of their statutory functions, they are frequently called upon to adjust individual grievances, and parties to collective disputes are in the habit of asking the inspectors to act as mediators. This activity is so extensive that "the inspectors never fail to point out in their reports that the large number of disputes they have to settle frequently prevents them from giving as much attention as they should to the application of provisions concerning the protection of labor." [5] Inspectors also serve on arbitration boards when a strike settlement is referred to arbitration.

Agricultural labor comes within the jurisdiction of the factory-inspection system of Poland. In that field, however, the main function of the local inspector is to conduct negotiations for collective agreements, and to investigate agricultural strikes. If collective bargaining does not result in agreement, it becomes the inspector's duty to convene a board of arbitration, decisions of which are binding.

A similar obligation in connection with industrial disputes and the negotiation of agreements rests upon the factory inspectors of Rumania. Moreover, the organization and supervision of unemployment relief were added to their duties during the depressed years of 1930 and 1931, when they were required not only to supervise the distribution of relief but to secure prompt payment of the contributions levied on wages for the relief fund.

[5] International Labor Review, March 1937: Labor Inspection in Poland, 1928-33, p. 391.

HEALTH AND INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

Sickness Among Male Industrial Employees, 1936

DISABILITIES from sickness and nonindustrial accidents lasting 8 days or longer are reported regularly to the United States Public Health Service by a group of industrial concerns for their male employees.[1] In 1935 and 1936 the same companies furnished these reports, the average number of men covered being, respectively, 140,306 and 157,294. The frequency of the cases increased over the preceding year in both 1935 and 1936, the incidence rate being 95.1 cases per 1,000 males in 1936, 85.7 in 1935, and 79.3 in 1934. In this 2-year period, therefore, the frequency of cases lasting 8 days or longer increased 20 percent. However, the 1936 incidence was only 7 percent higher than the average annual rate during the 5-year period ending December 31, 1935.

There were 34.7 cases of respiratory diseases per 1,000 males in 1936 and 29.7 in 1935, representing a 17-percent increase in 1936 over the preceding year. Bronchitis and pneumonia were more prevalent in 1936 than in either of the two earlier periods, but the number of new cases of respiratory tuberculosis was lower than in 1935 or the 1931–35 period. This reduction is regarded as encouraging if the sample of the population can be considered representative. The increase in the pneumonia rate, however, which in 1935 was 15 percent higher and in 1936 one-third higher than the average for the 5 years 1931–35, was considered serious, since about one-fourth of the pneumonia cases occurring among workers below the age of 50 may be expected to be fatal. The influenza rate in 1936 was much higher than in 1935 but about the same as the average rate for the 1931–35 period.

The rate for the nonrespiratory group of diseases was higher in 1936 than in either the preceding year or the preceding 5 years, although this group shows less variation than the respiratory diseases. There was no change in frequency in diseases of the nervous system and the circulatory and the genito-urinary disease groups over the 5-year average, but there was an increase in the rate for appendicitis and for diseases of the skin and for the rheumatic group.

The rate for nonindustrial injuries in 1936 was 9 percent above the rate for 1935 but was the same as the rate for 1931–35.

The increases in the 1936 sickness rates occurred mainly in the fourth quarter of the year, the increased frequencies affecting all the diseases

[1] United States. Public Health Service. Public Health Reports, Apr. 30, 1937 (pp. 537-559).

of the respiratory group except tuberculosis. The rate for nonrespiratory diseases as a whole was 17 percent higher than in the fourth quarter of 1935, the increased rates occurring in the groups of nonindustrial injuries, diseases of the stomach, appendicitis, rheumatic diseases, genito-urinary diseases other than nephritis, and diseases of the skin.

The following table shows the frequency of disability from various diseases among a group of industrial workers in 1936, compared with 1935 and the 5-year period 1931–35.

Frequency of Disability in a Group of Industrial Workers in Specified Periods [1]

[Data cover only disability lasting 8 calendar days or longer.]

Diseases causing disability	Number of disabilities per 1,000 men				
	Fourth quarter of—		Full year of—		1931-35
	1936	1935	1936	1935	
Sickness and nonindustrial injuries [2]	103.5	82.0	95.1	85.7	89.2
Nonindustrial injuries	13.0	11.5	12.1	11.1	12.1
Sickness	90.5	70.5	83.0	74.6	77.1
Respiratory diseases	39.5	26.8	34.7	29.7	31.5
Bronchitis, acute and chronic	5.8	4.3	5.0	3.9	3.5
Diseases of the pharynx and tonsils	4.8	4.4	4.9	5.0	4.7
Influenza and grippe	18.3	10.2	15.8	12.9	15.9
Pneumonia, all forms	2.4	2.0	2.7	2.3	2.0
Tuberculosis of the respiratory system	.8	1.0	.8	1.0	1.0
Other respiratory diseases	7.4	9	5.5	4.6	4.4
Nonrespiratory diseases	51.0	43.7	48.3	44.9	45.6
Diseases of the stomach, cancer excepted	4.4	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.7
Diarrhea and enteritis	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2
Appendicitis	4.1	3.6	4.4	3.8	3.7
Hernia	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.6
Other digestive diseases	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.8	3.0
Rheumatic group, total	10.7	8.9	10.2	9.2	9.9
Rheumatism, acute and chronic	4.7	3.4	4.5	4.0	4.7
Diseases of the organs of locomotion	3.4	3.1	3.3	2.8	3.0
Neuralgia, neuritis, sciatica	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.2
Neurasthenia	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.1
Other diseases of the nervous system	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.3
Diseases of the heart and arteries, and nephritis	3.8	4.1	3.7	4.0	3.8
Other genito-urinary diseases	3.1				
Diseases of the skin	3.8	2.7	3.1	2.7	2.8
Epidemic and endemic diseases except influenza	1.9	2.6	2.4	2.7	2.4
Ill-defined and unknown causes	4.0	1.9	3.2	2.1	2.0
All other diseases	6.9	5.7	6.6	6.2	6.7
Average number of males covered	164,877	143,877	157,294	140,306	146,921
Number of companies included	29	29	29	29	

[1] In 1935 and 1936 the same companies are included. The rates for the years 1931–35 include 24 of these companies, which employed an average of 119,426 men during these years, or 81 percent of the 146,921 men representing the sample population for the 5 years.

[2] Exclusive of disability from the venereal diseases and a few numerically unimportant causes of disability.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS

Industrial Injuries in Mines and Quarries in 1934 and 1935 [1]

A SURVEY of the industrial-injury experience of 1,865 identical mines and quarries reveals an increase in the frequency rate of disabling injuries from 93.68 in 1934 to 94.20 in 1935.[2] This increase occurred in spite of a slight decrease in the actual number of disabling injuries from 40,081 in 1934 to 39,713 in 1935. The increase in rate is attributable to the fact that injuries did not decrease at the same rate as did man-hours. This experience is summarized below:

	1934	1935
Number of employees	301, 871	306, 843
Average days worked per man	189	187
Total man-hours (thousands)	427, 840	421, 587
Deaths	610	624
Total number of injuries	40, 081	39, 713
Frequency rate	93. 68	94. 20

From the preceding statement it is seen that total man-hours worked decreased from 1934 to 1935, while the total employment increased. The increase in number employed was coupled with an increase in the frequency rate and an increase in the total number of deaths from 610 to 624. It may also be noted that the frequency rate for this mining and quarrying group is approximately five times as high as that of 30 manufacturing industries.[3]

Table 1 shows the experience of the various types of mines and quarries for both 1934 and 1935. Of the 610 deaths in 1934 and 624 deaths in 1935, 552 and 527, respectively, occurred in coal mining. For all coal mines, the frequency rate increased from 97.53 in 1934 to 98.55 in 1935. The rate for underground bituminous-coal mines increased from 85.23 to 89.98, while that for open-pit mining decreased slightly, from 91.70 to 91.41. Anthracite mines experienced very much higher rates, but nevertheless showed a decrease in rate from 141.55 in 1934 to 133.55 in 1935. In both years, anthracite mines experienced higher rates of disabling injuries than any other type of mining surveyed.

Metal mines, which as a group had a rate appreciably lower than that of coal mines, also showed an increase in frequency from 86.31 in 1934 to 89.46 in 1935. Underground iron mines, however, not only

[1] This article is based on computations made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from data of the U. S. Bureau of Mines.

[2] The frequency rate is the number of disabling injuries per million man-hours worked.

[3] See Monthly Labor Review, January 1937 (p. 101): Industrial Injuries in 30 Manufacturing Industries, 1934 and 1935.

experienced the lowest rates of any of the groups shown, but also had a decrease from 25.63 to 23.27. The number of employees in these mines remained practically unchanged during the 2 years, but man-hours worked increased by more than a million.

Table 1.—Injuries and Frequency Rates in Identical Mines, 1934 and 1935

Types of mines	Number of mines	Number of employees	Average days worked per man	Man-hours worked	Number of injuries causing—				Total number of injuries	Frequency rate
					Death	Permanent total disability	Permanent partial disability	Temporary total disability		
	1935									
All types	1,865	306,843	187	421,587,055	624	(1)	(1)	(1)	39,713	94.20
Coal	1,188	260,558	180	336,484,640	527	(1)	(1)	(1)	33,161	98.55
Bituminous	1,132	213,628	181	270,494,442	432	33	997	22,886	24,348	90.01
Underground	1,072	208,716	180	263,569,586	426	33	974	22,282	23,715	89.98
Open-pit	60	4,912	198	6,924,856	6	0	23	604	633	91.41
Anthracite	56	46,930	175	65,990,198	95	(1)	(1)	(1)	8,813	133.55
Metals	209	26,514	259	54,490,585	73	5	178	4,619	4,875	89.46
Iron, underground	57	8,571	214	14,697,352	14	3	36	289	342	23.27
Gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, underground	152	17,943	280	39,793,233	59	2	142	4,330	4,533	113.91
Non-metals: Talc, soapstone and salt	20	864	216	1,438,438	1	0	4	104	109	75.78
Quarries	448	18,907	193	29,173,392	23	5	35	1,505	1,568	53.75
	1934									
All types	1,865	301,871	189	427,839,890	610	(1)	(1)	(1)	40,081	93.68
Coal [2]	1,188	255,464	186	351,417,973	552	(1)	(1)	(1)	34,274	97.53
Bituminous	1,132	207,115	184	275,422,728	441	49	942	22,085	23,517	85.39
Underground	1,072	202,316	184	268,814,524	435	47	929	21,500	22,911	85.23
Open-pit	60	4,799	188	6,608,204	6	2	13	585	606	91.70
Anthracite [3]	56	48,349	196	75,995,245	111	(1)	(1)	(1)	10,757	141.55
Metals	209	25,147	226	45,299,313	43	1	113	3,753	3,910	86.31
Iron, underground	57	8,532	198	13,513,376	12	1	28	304	345	25.53
Gold, silver, copper, lead, and zinc, underground	152	16,615	240	31,785,937	31	0	85	3,449	3,565	112.16
Non-metals [4]: Talc, soapstone and salt	20	951	248	1,851,847	0	0	2	153	155	83.70
Quarries [5]	448	20,309	180	29,270,757	15	2	47	1,678	1,742	59.51

[1] No classification of injuries by extent of disability other than deaths and permanent total disability.
[2] The following minimum number of employees apply to the data used: 50 men for mines in Alabama, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia; 25 men for mines in all other States except North Dakota, for which the minimum was 15 men.
[3] Includes data for underground, open-pit, washer, and breaker operations.
[4] Data for mines with not less than 10 employees.
[5] Data for quarries with not less than 10 employees.

In sharp contrast with the relatively low frequency rates for iron mines are those for other metallic mines, i. e., gold, silver, copper, lead, and zinc. In 1934, this group of mines experienced a frequency rate of 112.16. During 1935, this rate rose to 113.91. Employment increased from 16,615 to 17,943, and man-hours increased 8 million in 1935. But the total number of disabling injuries increased more sharply still, from 3,565 to 4,533, with deaths nearly doubling, from 31 in 1934 to 59 in 1935.

Nonmetal mines (talc, soapstone, and salt) had a decrease in frequency rate from 83.70 to 75.78. Similarly, the rate for quarries decreased from 59.51 to 53.75.

The movement of changes from 1934 to 1935 in employment, man-hours, injuries, and frequency rates is summarized in table 2.

Table 2.—Exposure and Injury Changes in Mines and Quarries, 1934 to 1935

Type of mines	Employment	Man-hours	Number of injuries	Frequency rate
	Trend was—			
Bituminous coal	Up	Down	Up	Up.
Anthracite	Up	Down	Down	Down.
Iron	Up	Up	Down	Down.
Gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc	Up	Up	Up	Up.
Talc, soapstone, salt	Down	Down	Down	Down.
Quarries	Down	Down	Down	Down.

Severity of Injuries

UNFORTUNATELY it was not possible to determine severity rates as well as frequency rates, because the injuries reported were not described in sufficient detail to permit the application of standard time losses. In the case of anthracite mines, it was not possible even to separate nonfatal injuries into permanent total, permanent partial, and temporary total disabilities.

Tables 3, 4, and 5 attempt to convey, by means other than severity rates, some idea of the severity of injuries experienced. In table 3 are shown frequency rates by extent of disability, wherever such rates could be computed. For every million man-hours worked in 1934, bituminous coal mines had 1.78 deaths or permanent total disabilities, 3.42 permanent partial disabilities, and 80.19 temporary total disabilities. During 1935, the respective rates were 1.72, 3.68, and 84.61.

Anthracite mines had frequency rates for deaths and permanent total disabilities of 1.46 in 1934 and 1.44 in 1935, showing practically no change. In the absence of data showing distribution by nonfatal types of disabilities, no rates could be computed for disabilities other than deaths.

Metal mines, as a group, had a frequency rate for deaths or permanent total disabilities of 0.97 in 1934, which increased to 1.43 in 1935. Similarly, the rate for permanent partial disabilities increased from 2.49 to 3.26, and the rate for temporary total disabilities from 82.85 to 84.77. While iron mines were partly responsible for these relatively sharp increases, the data for the other metal mines reveal that the increases must be attributed primarily to them. Their rate for deaths and permanent totals increased from 0.98 to 1.53, the rate for permanent partials from 2.67 to 3.57, with temporary totals remaining practically unchanged, 108.51 in 1934 and 108.81 in 1935.

For talc, soapstone, and salt mines, the rate for deaths increased from 0.00 to 0.70 because of 1 death. The rate for permanent totals

increased from 1.08 to 2.78, whereas that for temporary totals decreased sharply from 82.62 to 72.30.

Quarries, with a rate of 0.58 for deaths and permanent total disabilities in 1934, experienced an increased rate of 0.96 in 1935. But decreases were experienced in the rates for permanent partial incapacity from 1.60 to 1.20 and in temporary total disability, from 57.33 to 51.59.

In 1935, therefore, fatality and permanent total disability rates were highest in coal mining, with metal mines other than iron ranking second highest, iron mines third, quarries fourth, and talc, soapstone, and salt mines lowest.

Table 3.—Frequency Rates for Identical Mines, Classified by Extent of Disability, 1934 and 1935

Types of mines	Frequency rate—					
	Death and permanent total disabilities		Permanent partial disabilities		Temporary total disabilities	
	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935
Coal	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Bituminous	1.78	1.72	3.42	3.68	80.19	84.61
Underground	1.79	1.74	3.46	3.70	79.98	84.54
Open-pit	1.21	.87	1.97	3.32	88.52	87.22
Anthracite			(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Metals	.97	1.43	2.49	3.26	82.85	84.77
Iron, underground	.96	1.16	2.07	2.45	22.50	19.66
Gold, silver, copper, lead and zinc, underground	.98	1.53	2.67	3.57	108.51	108.81
Nonmetals: Talc, soapstone, and salt	0	.70	1.08	2.78	82.62	72.30
Quarries	.58	.96	1.60	1.20	57.33	51.59

[1] No classification of injuries by extent of disability, other than deaths and permanent total disability.

In table 4, the various types of disabilities have been computed per 1,000 injuries. On the basis of this distribution, iron mines had 50 fatalities or permanent total disabilities per 1,000 injuries in 1935, and 38 in 1934. Similarly, they ranked highest in permanent partials with 81 in 1934 and 105 in 1935.

For bituminous-coal mines, out of every 1,000 injuries 21 caused death or permanent total disablement in 1934, and 19 in 1935. For open-pit mines, this figure was only 13 in 1934 and 10 in 1935. The ratios of permanent total incapacity for underground mines remained at 41 per 1,000 injuries in both years, while those for open-pit mines increased from 22 to 36. No data classified by extent of disability are available for anthracite mines, except those for deaths, which show ratios of 10 and 11 respectively for 1934 and 1935.

For metal mines other than iron, the deaths or permanent total disabilities per 1,000 injuries increased from 9 to 14, and permanent partial disabilities from 24 to 31. Similarly, talc, soapstone, and salt mines, with no deaths in 1934, had 9 deaths per 1,000 injuries in 1935, while the ratio of permanent partial disabilities nearly trebled, from 13 to 37. Quarries also experienced an increase in the ratio of deaths and permanent total disabilities from 10 to 18, but, contrary to the general experience, had a decrease in permanent partial disablements from 27 to 22.

Table 4.—Disability Distribution per 1,000 Injuries for Identical Mines, 1934 and 1935

Types of mines	Number, per 1,000 injuries, of—					
	Deaths and permanent total disabilities		Permanent partial disabilities		Temporary total disabilities	
	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935
Coal	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Bituminous	21	19	40	41	939	940
Underground	21	19	41	41	938	940
Open-pit	13	10	22	36	965	954
Anthracite	10	11	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Metals	11	16	29	37	960	947
Iron, underground	38	50	81	105	881	845
Gold, silver, copper, lead, and zinc, underground	9	14	24	31	967	955
Nonmetals: Talc, soapstone, and salt	0	9	13	37	987	954
Quarries	10	18	27	22	963	960

[1] No classification of injuries by extent of disability, other than deaths and permanent total disability.

Changing the basis of consideration, table 5 shows the distribution of disabilities per 1,000 employees, with all figures rounded to the nearest whole number. On this basis, during each year 1934 and 1935, 2 men out of every 1,000 employed in bituminous-coal mining were killed or permanently and totally disabled and 5 more were permanently though only partially crippled. Another 107 workers were temporarily disabled.

In metal mining, 2 out of every 1,000 employees were killed or totally disabled permanently in 1934, and 3 in 1935. The ratio of permanent partial disabilities nearly doubled, rising from 4 to 7, while temporary disabilities rose from 149 to 174. In mines other than iron, 208 workers out of every 1,000 employed were temporarily disabled in 1934, and 241 in 1935.

Table 5.—Disability Distribution per 1,000 Employees for Identical Mines, 1934 and 1935

Types of mines	Number, per 1,000 employees, of—					
	Deaths and permanent total disabilities		Permanent partial disabilities		Temporary total disabilities	
	1934	1935	1934	1935	1934	1935
Coal	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Bituminous	2	2	5	5	107	107
Underground	2	2	5	5	106	107
Open-pit	2	1	3	5	122	123
Anthracite	2	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Metals [2]	2	3	4	7	149	174
Iron, underground	2	2	3	4	36	34
Gold, silver, copper, lead, and zinc, underground	2	3	5	8	208	241
Nonmetals: Talc, soapstone, and salt [2]	0	1	2	5	161	120
Quarries	1	1	2	2	83	80

[1] No classification of injuries by extent of disability other than deaths and permanent total disability.
[2] The high rates per 1,000 employees are largely due to the greater number of days of activity. See table 1.

On the basis of these tables it must be concluded that injuries during 1935 were both more frequent and more severe than in 1934.

LABOR LAWS

Legislative Provisions on Sunday Labor

LEGISLATION to safeguard the health of workers by insuring them a period of rest each week is practically universal throughout the United States. All the States and Territories, with the exception of the District of Columbia and the Philippine Islands, have enacted laws prohibiting various kinds of work on Sunday, though the observance of another day of the week as a day of rest usually secures exemption from this provision. In practically all the States, Sunday labor in general is prohibited, yet many exceptions to the general law are made where public necessity demands the operation and conduct of certain lines of work.

As early as 1858, laws forbidding Sunday labor were condemned as a violation of the principle of religious freedom (*Ex parte Newman*, 9 Calif. 502), but they are now almost universally upheld as being, instead, social and economic in their effect and a valid expression of public policy with regard to the well-being and general welfare of persons within the State. The State has, under its general police power, the authority to enact laws for the benefit of the health and welfare of its citizens. Laws which have singled out special places of employment, such as bakeries and barber shops, have, however, been held discriminatory and invalid.

The Supreme Court of California in the case of *Ex parte Scaranino* (60 Pac. (2d) 288) has recently declared unconstitutional a State law prohibiting the operation of a barber shop more than 6 days a week. On behalf of the State it was urged that the measure might be sustained as a sanitary measure, since the closing of all barber shops for 1 day each week would facilitate the thorough cleaning of such shops. The court, however, said that perhaps some barber shops would take advantage of the closing of the shop 1 day a week to clean it thoroughly but there was no reason "to suppose that all of them, or even a majority of them, would do so." Furthermore, the court said that the sanitary practices required by the California barber law "are such as to require continuous observance and the general cleaning of the premises could hardly be left to be done on 1 day of the week."

Similarly, the court on April 30, 1936,[1] declared invalid a municipal ordinance of Oakland which prohibited the delivery of bakery goods

[1] *Skaggs* v. *City of Oakland*, 57 P. (2d) 478.

on Sundays and other specified holidays and between the hours of 6 p. m. and 6 a. m. on other days.

The case of *Petit* v. *Minnesota* (177 U. S. 164, 168, 1900) involved the constitutionality of a Minnesota law prohibiting Sunday labor. The law was attacked on the ground that though works of necessity or charity were excepted, the statute was invalid because barbering was specifically declared not to be a work of necessity or charity. In upholding the statute as valid, the supreme court said that the courts would take judicial notice of the fact that "owing to the habit of so many men to postpone getting shaved until Sunday, if such shops were to be permitted to be kept open on Sunday, the employees would ordinarily be deprived of rest during half of that day."

In the case of *Soon Hing* v. *Crowley* (113 U. S. 703, 710, 1885), a prohibition against labor on Sunday was contained in the same section of the law with the provision for the cessation of labor in laundries during certain hours of the night, which was before the court. The Sunday prohibition was not involved, but the court, in upholding the night prohibition, cited as an example the laws setting aside Sunday as a day of rest, saying that they are upheld "not from any right of the Government to legislate for the promotion of religious observances but from its right to protect all persons from the physical and moral debasement which comes from uninterrupted labor. Such laws have always been deemed beneficent and merciful laws, especially to the poor and dependent, to the laborers in our factories and workshops and in the heated rooms of our cities; and their validity has been sustained by the highest courts of the States."

The power of the State to pass legislation creating a day of rest was considered by the United States Supreme Court in the case of *Hennington* v. *Georgia* (163 U. S. 299, 304, 308, 1896). The Court in that case said that "the legislature having, as will not be disputed, power to enact laws to promote the order and to secure the comfort, happiness, and health of the people, it was within its discretion to fix the day when all labor, within the limits of the State, works of necessity and charity excepted, should cease. It is not for the judiciary to say that the wrong day was fixed, much less that the legislature erred when it assumed that the best interests of all required that 1 day in 7 should be kept for the purposes of rest from ordinary labor." The Court quoted from a California decision [2] relating to the Sabbath day as follows:

> Its requirement is a cessation from labor. In its enactment, the legislature has given the sanction of law to a rule of conduct, which the entire civilized world recognizes as essential to the physical and moral well-being of society. Upon no subject is there such a concurrence of opinion, among philosophers, moralists, and statesmen of all nations, as on the necessity of periodical cessation from labor.

[1] *Ex parte Newman* (1858), 9 Calif. 502.

One day in seven is the rule, founded in experience and sustained by science. * * * The prohibition of secular business on Sunday is advocated on the ground that by it the general welfare is advanced, labor protected, and the moral and physical well-being of society promoted.

The courts have from time to time had occasion to consider cases in which the question of works of necessity or charity was concerned. In Georgia [3] an operator of a motion-picture theater on Sunday was convicted of violating the statute which provided that "any person who shall pursue his business or the work of his ordinary calling on the Lord's day, works of necessity or charity only excepted, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor", and this conviction was obtained even though the owner had donated the net proceeds of the Sunday business to the city for charitable purposes.

Newspaper distribution, however, was held not to be a violation of the Kansas Sunday law.[4] The Supreme Court of Kansas sustained a lower-court decision which had upheld the contention of the newspaper company that metropolitan newspapers are a necessity. The State supreme court said:

At this stage of the world's progress, with the means of gathering news that are available, we have grown to expect far more expeditious service on the part of the newspapers of the State than was received during the days when the statute in question was passed. * * * This court will take judicial notice of the fact that these demands are met by the Sunday papers of our larger cities. From the small boy whose first thought on arising Sunday morning is the comic section, to the son grown older who turns eagerly to the sport page, the young daughter who peruses the society columns, and father and mother who turn their attention to the more serious pages, the Sunday paper is looked upon and has grown to be a necessity, and this court so holds.

During the legislative sessions of 1937, considerable interest has been created in this subject. In Pennsylvania (Act 42) the legislature provided for 1 day of rest in 7 for employees of motion-picture houses. Druggists in Colorado must hereafter be given either 1 day off a week or 2 half days. The Massachusetts act was extended to cover restaurant employees. In New York legislation was enacted to cover employees in hotels and restaurants, female elevator operators, and employees engaged in the preparation, etc., of food in State institutions. Female employees may not be employed more than 6 days a week. Other States, including Wisconsin, have enacted this type of legislation, while some are considering the matter.

Since it is recognized that certain works of necessity are demanded on Sunday, several of the States have provided laws requiring that all employees so employed shall be given a weekly day of rest, and those obliged to labor on Sunday are therefore given a free day at some other time during the week.

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[3] *Woods* v. *State*, 185, S. E. 920.

[4] *State* v. *Needham*, 4 Pac. (2d) 464.

In the following tables are given the citations of Sunday labor laws in the various jurisdictions, with special notation of States having laws providing for 1 day of rest in 7 and exemption of persons who from religious motive observe some other day of the week.

Some instances where the exceptions are detailed or already included in the provisions of other States, have been purposely omitted and note is made of the fact.

Provisions Relating to Sunday Labor

State and citation	Coverage of legislation
Alabama (Code, 1923, secs. 5539, 5541).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Domestic duties of daily necessity or comfort; works of charity; druggists; railroads, stages, steamboats, other vessels navigating waters of State; manufacturing establishments that must be kept in constant operation; sale of gasoline, other motor fuels, and motor oils.
Alaska (Comp. L., 1933, sec. 4962).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Druggists, doctor shops, undertakers, livery stables, barbers, butchers and bakers, theaters and moving-picture houses; all circumstances of necessity and mercy may be pleaded in defense, which shall be treated as questions of fact for jury to determine, when offense is tried by jury.
Arizona (Rev. Code, 1928, sec. 4884).	Barbering prohibited on Sunday.
Arkansas (Crawford & Moses Digest, 1921, secs. 2732–2735).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Customary household duties of daily necessity, comfort or charity; steamboats and other vessels navigating waters of State; manufacturing establishments that must be kept in constant operation.
California (Deering's Gen. L., 1931, Act 4718).	[2].
Colorado (Stat. Ann., 1935, ch. 48, secs. 269, 286, 287).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of necessity and charity.
Connecticut (Gen. Stat., 1930, secs. 3641, 3741, 6295 (as amended 1931, ch. 330) [3] 6296, 6297, 6298).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Such trains or classes of trains as are authorized by public utilities commission; handling, loading, or unloading of freight in case of necessity or mercy; [4] operation of electric cars or public service motorbusses; works of necessity or mercy; druggists; sale of milk, bakery products, fruit, ice, ice cream, confectionery, nonalcoholic beverages and drinks, tobacco in any form, smoker's supplies, newspapers and periodicals, drugs, automobile supplies by retail dealers whose places of business are open on secular days; farms; personal service; watchmen; superintendents or managers; janitors; persons engaged in transportation, sale or delivery of milk, food or newspapers; commercial occupations or industrial processes of a continuous nature; necessary work of inspection, repair, or care of any manufacturing or other plant or of any merchandise or stock.[5]
Delaware (Code, 1935, secs. 1042, 5253).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of necessity and charity.
District of Columbia (Supp. II (1935) to Code, 1929).	[6].
Florida (Comp. Gen. L., 1927, secs. 7649–7651).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of necessity or charity; household duties; printing or preparation, between midnight Saturday and 6 a. m. Sunday, of any newspaper to be circulated or sold on Sunday; circulation and sale of same, or of any newspaper theretofore printed; in cases of emergency or necessity, merchants, shopkeepers, and others may sell comforts and necessaries to customers without keeping open doors.
Georgia (Code, 1933, secs. 26–6903 to 26–6905).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Certain train transportation (see extended list of types of trains excepted); works of charity and necessity.
Hawaii (Rev. L., 1935, secs. 6210, 6211 (as amended 1935, Series C–123), 6211A (added 1935, Series C–124), 6214).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Work of mercy or necessity; newspaper printing offices; steamship companies; railroad, telegraph and telephone companies; hotels, inns, restaurants, cigar stores, ice-cream parlors, soda-water stands, drug stores; garages, service stations, venders of petroleum products; hackmen; owners and operators of licensed shore boats or automobiles; news depots; graziers, ranchmen; electric-light plants, gas works and slaughter houses; conveyance of personal baggage to and from vessels leaving and arriving at port on that day, and to and from railroad stations; loading and unloading of vessels engaged in interisland, interstate or foreign commerce, and conveyance of freight thereto or therefrom; sale of flowers, ice, fruit, foodstuffs, and materials of every nature to be used in preparation of food; medicinal drugs, first-aid supplies, and such things as are necessary for the practice of medicine and the care of the sick. Laundry or washing may be delivered and collected.

[1] But observance of another day than Sunday exempts person from act.
[2] Law provides only for 1 day of rest in 7. Laws forbidding Sunday labor have been held unconstitutional in cases of *Ex parte Newman* (1858), 9 Cal. 502, and *Ex parte Westerfield* (1880), 55 Cal. 550.
[3] See Supp. (1931, 1933, 1935) to Gen. Stat. 1930, sec. 1705c.
[4] The handling, loading, or unloading of freight between steamboats and cars until 8 a. m. may be permitted by the commission in case of public necessity or for the preservation of the freight.
[5] But persons working on Sunday must be given 1 day of rest during week.
[6] Barber shops must be closed 1 day in 7 (D. C. Code, Supp. II, Title 19, sec. 201). Bowling alleys, etc. required to be closed on Sundays (Same, Title 20, sec. 1721).

Provisions Relating to Sunday Labor—Continued

State and citation	Coverage of legislation
Idaho (Code, 1932, secs. 17-2502, 17-2503).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Hotels and restaurants (lodging and meals); livery stables, garages, automobile-service stations; stores (sale of medicines or sick-room supplies); undertakers (while providing for the dead); newsstands (quiet sale and delivery of daily papers and magazines); sale of nonintoxicating refreshments, candies, fresh fruits, and cigars; bakeries; shoe-shining stands; receipt, transportation, or delivery of express shipments of ice cream, bakery goods, dairy or perishable farm products.
Illinois (Rev. Stat., 1935, ch. 38, sec. 573; ch. 48, secs. 22(10)-22(16)).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; watermen and railroad companies may land passengers, and watermen may load and unload cargoes; ferrymen may carry travelers and persons moving their families.[7]
Indiana (Burns' Stat., 1926, sec. 2574)	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity or necessity; travelers and those engaged in conveying them; families moving to another place; keepers of toll bridges and toll gates; ferrymen; persons engaged in publication and distribution of news.
Iowa (Code, 1935, sec. 13227)	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity or necessity; persons traveling or families emigrating; keepers of toll bridges and toll gates; ferrymen.
Kansas (Gen. Stat., Ann. 1935, secs. 21-952, 21-953, 21-955, 21-956).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Household duties of daily necessity or other works of necessity or charity; ferrymen who convey passengers; sale of drugs, medicines, provisions, or other articles of immediate necessity.
Kentucky (Carroll's Stat., 1930, sec. 1321 (as amended 1934, ch. 49)).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Household duties; works of necessity or charity; work required for maintenance or operation of a ferry, skiff or steamboat, or steam or street railroad; telegraph and telephone companies; public-service or public-utility plants or systems; taxicabs or filling stations.
Louisiana (Dart's Crim. Stat., 1932, secs. 1174-1178).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* News dealers; soda fountains; recreation and health resorts, watering places, public parks; sale of ice; newspaper and printing offices; bookstores; drug stores, apothecary shops; undertaking establishments; public and private markets, bakeries, dairies; livery stables; railroads, steamboats and other vessels, warehouses for receiving and forwarding freight; restaurants, hotels, boarding houses; telegraph offices; theaters, places of amusement, providing no intoxicating liquors are sold on premises; stores (sale of articles necessary in sickness or for burial).
Maine (Rev. Stat., 1930, ch. 135, secs. 39 (as amended 1933, ch. 161), 42).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; operation of common carriers; driving of taxicabs and public carriages in attendance upon arrivals or departures of such carriers; driving of private automobiles or other vehicles; operation of airplanes; printing and selling of Sunday newspapers; hotels, restaurants, garages, drug stores; sale of gasoline; certain lectures where no admission fee is charged.
Maryland (Ann. Code, 1924, art. 27, secs. 483, 484).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of necessity and charity; retailing of tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, candy, sodas and soft drinks ices, ice cream, ice, other confectionery, milk, bread, fruit, gasoline, oils and greases; sale of drugs, medicines, and patent medicines; sale of newspapers and periodicals.
Massachusetts (Gen. L., 1932, ch. 136, secs. 5, 6 (as amended, 1933, ch. 150; 1934, chs. 328 and 354); ch. 149, secs. 47, 48, (as amended 1935, chs. 185, 423) 49, 50 (as amended 1933, ch. 225; 1935, ch. 423), 50A (as added 1935, ch. 423)).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity or necessity (see Gen. L., 1932, ch. 136, sec. 6 (as amended 1933, ch. 150; 1934, chs. 328 and 354), for other exceptions).[7]
Michigan (Comp. L., 1929, secs. 8712-8714, 9078, 9079, 9083).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of necessity and charity; barbers may minister to deceased persons.
Minnesota (Mason's Stat., 1927, secs. 10234, 10236, Supp. (1936) to Mason's Stat., 1927, sec. 10235).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity or necessity, including whatever is needed during day for good order, health or comfort of community, including the usual shoe-shining service; serving of meals on premises or elsewhere by caterers; sale (in a quiet orderly manner) of prepared tobacco in places other than where intoxicating liquors are kept for sale, fruits, confectionery, newspapers, drugs, medicines, and surgical appliances.[8]
Mississippi (Code 1930, secs. 1131 (as amended 1932, ch. 248), 1132).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Ordinary household duties of daily necessity or other work of necessity or charity; labor on railroads, steamboats, telephone or telegraph lines, street railways, newspapers, or in the business of a livery stable, garage or gasoline filling station, or selling ice; and labor in meat markets in municipalities of less than 5,000 inhabitants; apothecaries or druggists who may open stores for sale of medicines.[8]
Missouri (Rev. Stats., 1929, secs. 4348, 4349, 4352).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Household duties of daily necessity, and other works of necessity or charity; ferrymen conveying passengers; sale of drugs, medicines, provisions, or other articles of immediate necessity.

[1] But observance of another day than Sunday exempts person from act.
[6] But persons working on Sunday must be given 1 day of rest during week.
[7] But persons working on Sunday must be given 1 day of rest during week. See extended list of excepted occupations.
[8] Municipalities of less than 5,000 inhabitants may prescribe certain hours, not to exceed 3 per Sabbath, that garages and gasoline stations shall close.

Provisions Relating to Sunday Labor—Continued

State and citation	Coverage of legislation
Montana (Rev. Codes, 1935, sec. 11040).	Barbering prohibited on Sunday.
Nebraska (Comp. Stats., 1929, sec. 28-940; Supp. (1933) to Comp. Stats., 1929, sec. 2894[1/2]).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; families emigrating or moving; watermen landing passengers; superintendents and helpers of toll bridges or toll gates; ferrymen conveying travelers; railroad companies running necessary trains; barbers doing work in connection with medical treatment of persons confined to their rooms or in a hospital, and being under the care of a physician (considered as work of necessity).
Nevada (Comp. L., 1929, sec. 782).	Barbering prohibited on Sunday.
New Hampshire (Pub. L., 1926, ch. 176, secs. 43-47 (added 1933, ch. 130), ch. 385, secs. 3-5, 5a (added 1931, ch. 155)).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of necessity and mercy; making of necessary repairs in mills and factories which could not be made otherwise without loss to operatives; entertainment of boarders; sale of milk, bread, and other necessaries of life, drugs and medicines.[7]
New Jersey (Comp. Stat., 1910, p. 5712, secs. 1 (as amended 1933, ch. 115), 2-4, 13, 33, 34; Cum. Supp. (1911-1924) to Comp. stat., sec. 107-24).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity dressing of victuals in private families, lodging houses, inns, and other places of entertainment for use of sojourners, travelers, or strangers; railroad company may run 1 passenger train each way; printing, publishing, and sale of newspapers; sale and delivery of milk; hire of carriages for driving, stages in cases of necessity or mercy, or in carrying mail to or from any post office; necessary railroad and ferryboat transportation.
New Mexico (Comp. Stat., 1929, secs. 35-4002, 35-4003 (as amended 1931, ch. 29)).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of charity, necessity, or mercy; in cases of necessity farmers and gardeners may irrigate their lands, and when necessary to preserve same, may harvest grain and other products; cooks, waiters, and other employees of hotels and restaurants; butchers and bakers; operation of any drug store, filling station, campground, newsstand, picture show, garage, tire-repair shop, ice station, confectionery, soft-drink stand, truck or stage line.
New York (Cahill's Consol. L., 1930, ch. 32, sec. 161 (as amended 1935, ch. 411); ch. 41, secs. 2140-2146, 2147 (as amended 1935, ch. 191), 2153).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; sale, service, or delivery of articles of food, before 10 a. m., and by delicatessen dealers also between 4 p. m. and 7:30 p. m.; serving of meals to be eaten on premises; catering; sale of prepared tobacco, milk, eggs, ice, soda water, fruit, flowers, confectionery, souvenirs, newspapers, gasoline, oil, tires, drugs, medicines, surgical instruments, except in places where spirituous or malt liquors or wines are kept or offered for sale.[4]
North Carolina (Code, 1935, secs. 3480, 3955, 3957).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; trains transporting United States mail, passengers with their baggage, and express freight in express cars exclusively; fruit, vegetables, livestock, perishable freights; Forsyth and Johnson Counties only—Hotels, boarding houses, restaurants, cafes, furnishing meals to actual guests; sale of goods for medical or surgical purposes by drug stores with licensed pharmacists; sale of tobacco and cigars; sale and delivery of ice and dairy products; livery stables, garages; publication and sale of newspapers.
North Dakota (Comp. L., 1913, secs. 567, 9235-9237, 9239. Supp. (1913-1925) to Comp. L., 1913, secs. 9236, 9240, 9242).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; operation of steam railroads, street railways, telegraph, and telephone systems; electric-light, gas, heat, and power systems; livery and feed barns, hacks, taxicabs, busses, automobile garages, and supply stations; bakeries; bootblack stands; popcorn stands; newspaper plants; barbers shaving or otherwise preparing dead for burial; sale of meats and fish (before 10 a. m.); foods to be eaten on premises; drugs, medicines, surgical appliances, milk, ice cream, soda-fountain dispensations, fruits, candy, confectionery, tobacco, cigars, newspapers and magazines, except in places where gaming is carried on or in pool rooms, billiard halls, bowling alleys, temperance saloons, unless gaming is discontinued from midnight on Saturday until 6 a. m. on Monday.
Ohio (Gen. Code, 1932, secs. 13044-13048, 13052).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of charity or necessity; families traveling; watermen landing passengers; keepers of toll bridges, toll gates, or ferries; druggists selling intoxicating liquor for medicinal purposes only, on written prescription of regular practicing physician.
Oklahoma (Comp. Stats., 1931, secs. 2563-2567).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Works of necessity or charity; sale of meats, bread, and fish, before 9 a. m.; sale of food and drink to be eaten and drunk on premises; drugs, medicines, milk, ice, surgical appliances, and burial supplies.
Oregon (Code, 1930, secs. 14-810, 14-811).	Barbering prohibited on Sunday.
Pennsylvania (Purdon's Stats., 1936, Title 18, sec. 1991).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; dressing of victuals in private families, bake houses, lodging houses, inns, and other houses of entertainment for use of sojourners, travelers or strangers; watermen landing passengers, ferrymen carrying travelers; persons removing their families; delivery of milk or necessaries before 9 a. m. and after 5 p. m.

[1] But observance of another day than Sunday exempts person from act.
[4] But persons working on Sunday must be given 1 day of rest during week.
[7] But persons working on Sunday must be given 1 day of rest during week. See extended list of excepted occupations.

Provisions Relating to Sunday Labor—Continued

State and citation	Coverage of legislation
Puerto Rico (Rev. Stats., 1911, secs. 6004 (as amended by Acts of 1914, No. 24; Acts of 1917, (Vol. 2), No. 26; Acts of 1925, No. 18; Acts of 1930, No. 54), 6007).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Libraries; sugar and alcohol factories and those places for the packing, canning, and refrigerating of fruits and vegetables; coffee-cleaning mills; pharmacies; public markets; printeries; garages; bakeries; places selling coffee and refreshments only; restaurants, cafes, hotels, inns, confectionery and pastry stores; casinos, billiard rooms; ice depots; meat stands; milk depots; stands selling sweets, matches, manufactured tobacco, and newspapers; dairies; slaughter houses; livery stables; piers or docks; undertaking establishments; public and quasi public utilities; works of emergency necessary to prevent danger or considerable financial losses.[5]
Rhode Island (Gen. L., 1923, ch. 399, secs. 18–21, Acts of 1930, ch. 1566 (as amended 1932, ch. 1875; 1936, ch. 2284)).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity. Any town council may authorize the licensing of places for sale of milk, bread, and other bakery products, fruit, ice, ice cream, confectionery, soda waters, mineral waters, nonalcoholic tonics and drinks, tobacco in any form, smokers' supplies, newspapers and periodicals, gasoline, oil, grease, automotive parts, automotive servicing, tools and accessories, and persons dealing in the rental of bathing suits, of bathhouses, and of automobile parking space and the operation of public golf courses, and, except in the city of Providence, persons engaged in the business of polishing shoes and cleaning hats, where the stores or places of business of such retail dealers or persons are open for the sale, rental, or operation thereof on secular days; wholesale auction market of fruit, vegetables, and farm products by any farmers' cooperative association (works of necessity).
South Carolina (Code, 1932, secs. 1732–1735; 8343, 8344, Acts of 1934, No. 850).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of charity or necessity; work in machine shops in cases of emergency; unloading of cars loaded with animals; running of regular passenger, mail, and express trains, through freight trains between terminals within this State, or interstate into or through this State, and such extra freight trains as are needed to transport perishable freight and fertilizers, such wrecking and repair trains as are made necessary by casualty or emergency. When necessary to operate an extra freight train for perishable freight it may carry nonperishable freight also.
South Dakota (Comp. L., 1929, secs. 3846–3851, 3854).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of charity or necessity; sale of meats, milk, and fish, before 9 a. m.; sale of food to be eaten on premises; sale of drugs, medicines, and surgical appliances.
Tennessee (Code, 1932, secs. 5253, 5254).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of necessity or charity.
Texas (Vernon's Stat., 1936, arts. 283, 284, 286, 287 (p. 1602)).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Household duties; works of necessity or charity; work on farms or plantations necessary to prevent loss of crop; running of steamboats and other water craft, rail cars, wagon trains, common carriers, delivery of goods by them, receiving or storing of said goods by persons to whom delivered; stages carrying United States mail or passengers; foundries; sugar mills; herders; travelers; ferrymen; keepers of toll bridges; keepers of hotels, boarding houses, and restaurants and their servants; livery stables; markets; sale of provisions, before 9 a. m.; sale of burial material, newspapers, ice cream, milk, ice, gasoline or other motor fuel, vehicle lubricants; operation of telegraph or telephone offices and sending of telegraph or telephone messages; drug stores; bathhouses; operators of motion-picture shows or theaters in an incorporated city or town after 1 o'clock p. m.
Utah (Rev. Stat., 1933, secs. 103–53–1, 103–53–2).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Hotels, boarding houses, restaurants, taverns; livery stables, garages; retail drug stores; baths; works kept in constant operation.
Vermont (Pub. L., 1933, secs. 8706, 8707).	Sunday labor prohibited. *Exceptions:* Works of charity and necessity; necessary train transportation.
Virginia (Code, 1930, secs. 342a, 4570 (as amended 1932, ch. 328 (p. 596)), 4571–4575).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Household or other work of necessity or charity; furnaces, kilns, plants and other business of like kind that may be necessary to be conducted on Sunday, the sale of motor-vehicle fuel and motor oil; necessary steamship and railroad transportation.[9]
Washington (Rem. Rev. Stat., 1931, secs. 2494, 2496, 8343).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Livery stables, garages; works of necessity or charity; caterers serving meals without intoxicating liquors; sale of prepared tobacco, milk, fruit, confectionery, newspapers, magazines, medical and surgical appliances; sale and delivery of dairy products.
West Virginia (Code, 1931, secs. 61–8–17, 61–8–18).	Sunday labor prohibited.[1] *Exceptions:* Household or other work of necessity or charity; transportation of mail, passengers, and their baggage, running any railroad train, traction car or system, automobile or other motor car, carrying passengers for pleasure or hire, steamboat or other boat used in carrying passengers or freight; carrying firearms or shooting by person having right to do so under laws of United States or State. Contracts are not void if made on Sunday.
Wisconsin (Stat., 1935, secs. 351.50, 351.66).	Manufacture or sale of bakery products prohibited.[7] (Applicable to counties of at least 500,000 population.)

[1] But observance of another day than Sunday exempts person from act.
[5] But persons working on Sunday must be given 1 day of rest during week.
[7] But person working on Sunday must be given 1 day of rest during week. See extended list of exceptions occupations.
[9] Employees of State government, required to be on duty 7 days per week, shall be relieved from duty at least 2 Sundays per month.

Trade-Union Act of Nova Scotia

LEGISLATION providing for the recognition of the principle of "majority rule" in collective bargaining was passed by the Province of Nova Scotia on April 17, 1937, and was assented to on the same day.[1]

This new measure, which "may be cited as the Trade-Union Act", makes it lawful for employees to organize a trade union and to become members of it. It is also lawful for employees to conduct collective bargaining with their employer or employers and for trade-union members to bargain collectively through the trade union and through the duly selected officers of such organization. In accordance with this act, every employer shall recognize and bargain collectively with the members of a trade union which represents the majority choice of the employees who are eligible for membership in such union when requested so to negotiate by the duly selected officers of that union. An employer who refuses to do so "shall be liable to a fine not exceeding $100 for each such offense, and in default of payment to 30 days' imprisonment."

Any employer, whether an individual person, firm, or a corporation, which shall by intimidation, threat of loss of position or employment, or by actual loss of position or employment, or by threatening or imposing any pecuniary penalty, prevent or attempt to prevent, an employee from joining or belonging to a trade union shall be liable to a fine not exceeding $100 for each such offense, and in default to 30 days' imprisonment, and in case of a corporation to a fine not exceeding $1,000.

[1] Report from Hugh H. Watson, American consul general at Halifax, N. S., under date of Apr. 20, 1937, transmitting copy of the act.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

Legislation Governing Trade Marks of Trade-Unions

A UNION label is a symbol used on the products of manufacturers to indicate that they are made in unionized shops, factories, or industrial establishments. It is usually displayed on the article by such means as a label, stamp, or other imprint. In addition to the label, shop cards indicating that the establishment is unionized are issued as well as union working buttons, assuring to the general public that the services of the employees are rendered by members of a trade-union.

The union-label law therefore secures to labor organizations the right to register, use, and protect from counterfeit or unauthorized use the trade marks or labels chosen by them to distinguish the products of union labor from other goods or manufactured articles.

The development of the use of union labels is divided by some writers into three periods. The first period was marked by the introduction of the use of a label in 1875 by the cigar makers in California. This was a result of the keen competition between the white cigar makers and the Chinese laborers, and it appears to have had considerable influence, for some time, in diverting trade from the Chinese to the white shops.[1] The second period covers the adoption of the label by other trade-unions (largely through the influence of the Knights of Labor) as a means of combating particular forms of competition to which the members of these unions were subject. The third stage was that in which widespread use of the labels began to be made as a matter of general union policy. The movement spread rapidly and the use of labels became popular with unions whose products were of such a nature that labels could easily be attached. Some organizations, such as those of the granite cutters, stonemasons, and glass-bottle blowers, found the use of labels difficult, but the majority of the unions found the label useful and soon adopted its use.

To make the union label an effective instrument, it was necessary that the union be able to prevent its use by other persons not members of the union. The cigar makers at first had little difficulty, but as the use of the label became more general, counterfeiting of it became less rare. The earlier cases, tried by the courts of original jurisdiction, were in favor of the union and injunctions were issued on the ground that since the object and effect of the label were to increase the value of the labor of the union members, who had a property right in their

[1] Spedden, Ernest R.: The Trade-Union Label. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1910.

own labor, the union also had a property right in the label.[2] Other courts upheld the union in protecting the use of the label, on the ground that counterfeiting was "perpetrating a fraud which injures the complainant's business and occasions him a pecuniary loss."[3] The Kentucky Court of Appeals concluded the opinion in the case of *Hetteman Bros. & Co.* v. *Powers* (102 Ky. 133) by saying:

> We are of the opinion that the law may be justly invoked by organized labor to protect from piracy and intrusion the fruits of its skill and handiwork and that brain and muscle may be the subjects of trade law rules as well as tangible property.

On the other hand, in Minnesota a court held that the union label could not be protected as it did not indicate any individual manufacturer nor point distinctly to the origin or ownership of the article to which it was applied.[4] A similar conclusion was reached by the courts of Pennsylvania,[5] and in Massachusetts the court said in the case of *Weener* v. *Brayton* (25 N. E. 46) that as the label was not itself property the officers and members of a union could not have an injunction against its unauthorized use.

Thus, in some States injunctive relief was denied and in others, when allowed, was not sufficient to stop the counterfeiting. Therefore, agitation was made for the enactment of legislation subjecting the counterfeiter to criminal prosecution. Laws allowing criminal punishment were passed immediately in several States and other States soon followed. At the present time 45 of the States have enacted union-label laws.[6]

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[1] *Bloete* v. *Simon*, 19th Abb. N. Cas. (N. Y.) 88; *Cigar Makers'* v. *Link*, circuit court of Baltimore, 1886.
[2] *Carson* v. *Ury*, 39 Fed. 777.
[3] *Cigar Makers* v. *Conhaim*, 41 N. W. 943.
[4] *McVey* v. *Brendel*, 22 Atl. 912.
[5] Mississippi, New Mexico, and North Carolina have no law on this subject. The States which have such laws and the citations are as follows: Alabama (Code, 1923, secs. 4903, 4904, 8990); Arizona (Rev. Code, 1928, secs. 4821, 4822); Arkansas (Crawford and Moses Digest, 1921, secs. 10311–10319); California (Deering's General Laws, 1931, Act 4103; Supp. (1933) to Deering's General Laws, 1931, Act 692; Deering's Penal Code, 1931, secs. 349a–349c; and Deering's Pol. Code, 1931, secs. 3200, 3201); Colorado (Stat. Ann., 1935, ch. 165. secs. 6–13); Connecticut (Rev. Gen. Stats., 1930, secs. 4748–4754); Delaware (Rev. Code, 1935, secs. 3950–3957); District of Columbia (Supp. II (1935) to Code, 1929, Title 19, secs. 191–193); Florida (Comp. Gen. Laws, 1927, secs. 7084–7087, 7294–7296); Georgia (Code, 1933, secs. 106–101 to 106–104); Idaho (Comp. Stat., 1932, secs. 43–501 to 43–507); Illinois (Rev. Stat., 1935, ch. 140, secs. 1–7); Indiana (Stats., 1926, secs. 14435, 14443–14445); Iowa (Code, 1935, secs. 9867–9875); Kansas (Gen. Stat. Ann., 1935, secs. 81–105 to 81–110); Kentucky (Carroll's Stats., 1930, secs. 4749–4755); Louisiana (Dart's Gen. Laws, 1932. secs. 9795–9801); Maine (Rev. Stats., 1930, ch. 54, secs. 43–49); Maryland (Ann. Code, 1924, art. 27, secs. 53–58); Massachusetts (Gen. Laws, 1932, ch. 110, secs. 8–15); Michigan (Comp. Laws, 1929, secs. 8970–8975); Minnesota (Mason's Stats., 1927, secs. 10346–10351); Missouri (Rev. Stats., 1929, secs. 14329–14337); Montana (Rev. Codes, 1935. secs. 11204–11209); Nebraska (Comp. Stats, 1929, secs. 48–208 to 48–211); Nevada (Comp. Laws, 1929, secs. 7695–7697, 10378–10381); New Hampshire (Pub. Laws, 1926, ch. 170, secs. 1–7); New Jersey (Comp. Stats., 1910, p. 1802, sec. 196; p. 5643, secs. 1–12); New York (Cahill's Consol. Laws, 1930, ch. 32, secs. 208, 209); North Dakota (Supp. (1913–1925) to Comp. Laws, 1913, secs. 9991a1–9991a3); Ohio (Gen. Code, 1932, secs. 6219–6227, 13102, 13153–13155); Oklahoma (Stats., 1931, secs. 12783–12789); Oregon (Code, 1930, secs. 14–396 to 14–399, 70–201 to 70–204); Pennsylvania (Purdon's Stat. Ann., 1936, Title 73, secs. 101–108); Rhode Island (Gen. Laws, 1923, ch. 223, as amended 1931, ch. 1747); South Carolina (Code, 1932, secs. 1245–1247); South Dakota (Comp. Laws, 1929, secs. 10411–10415); Tennessee (Code, 1932, secs. 6762–6770); Texas (Vernon's Stats , 1936, arts. 850–851 (p. 204); arts. 1061, 1062 (p. 1760)); Utah (Rev. Stats., 1933, secs. 95–1–1 to 95–1–7, secs. 103–56–1 to 103–56–5); Vermont (Pub. Laws, 1933, secs. 7821–7826); Virginia (Code, 1930, secs. 1455–1463); Washington (Remington's Rev. Stats., 1931, secs. 11537–11545); West Virginia (Code, 1931, ch. 47, art. 2, secs. 1–9); Wisconsin (Stats., 1935, secs. 132.01–132.03, 132.12, 343.651, 343.66); Wyoming (Rev. Stats., 1931, secs. 117–101 to 117–106).

Illustrative of the law governing trade marks of trade-unions is that of the District of Columbia. It is as follows:

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA LAW ON TRADE MARKS OF TRADE-UNIONS

(Code, 1929, Supplement II (1935), Title 19)

SECTION 191. A union or association of employees in the District of Columbia may adopt a device in the form of a label, brand, mark, name, or other character for the purpose of designating the products of the labor of the members thereof. A drawing of such device may be filed in the office of the clerk of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia and the clerk shall register same in a book to be provided for such purpose and be entitled to collect $1 for each registration. A certified copy of the drawing so registered may be obtained from the clerk upon the payment of $1 for each certification. Such certificate shall not be assignable by the union or association to whom it is issued.

SEC. 192. No person shall in any way use or display the label, brand, mark, name, or other character adopted by any such union or association as provided in section 191 of this title without the consent or authority of such union or association, or counterfeit or imitate any such label, brand, mark, name, or other character, or knowingly sell, dispose of, keep, or have in his possession with intent to sell or dispose of any goods, wares, merchandise, or other products of labor, upon which any such counterfeit or imitation is attached, affixed, printed, stamped, or impressed, or knowingly sell, dispose of, keep, or have in his possession with intent to sell or dispose of any goods, wares, merchandise, or other products of labor contained in any box, case, can, or package, to which or on which any such counterfeit or imitation is attached, affixed, printed, painted, stamped, or impressed. If copies of such device have been filed, the union or association may maintain an action in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia to enjoin the manufacture, use, display, or sale of counterfeit or colorable imitations of such device or of goods bearing the same, or the unauthorized use or display of such device or of goods bearing the same, and the court may restrain such wrongful manufacture, use, display, or sale, and every unauthorized use or display by others of the genuine devices so registered and filed, if such use or display is not authorized by the owner thereof, and may award to the plaintiff such damages resulting from such wrongful manufacture, use, display, or sale as may be proved, together with the profits derived therefrom.

SEC. 193. A person violating any of the provisions of section 192 of this title shall be guilty of a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of not less than $100 nor more than $500, or by imprisonment for not less than 3 months nor more than 1 year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Most of the laws contain similar provisions—e. g., that any union may register its label, after paying the registration fee; that any person counterfeiting such label is guilty of a misdemeanor and shall be subject to a fine varying from $100 to $500 or to imprisonment varying from 3 months to 1 year.

The constitutionality of legislation of this type has been repeatedly sustained.[7] In the case of *Seabold* v. *Commissioners*, in which the

[7] *Cohen* v. *People*, 149 Ill. 486; 37 N. E. 60; *State* v. *Bishop*, 128 Mo. 373; 31 S. W. 9; *Perkins* v. *Heert*, 1 N. Y. 306; 53 N. E. 18; *Commonwealth* v. *Norton*, 23 Penn. C. C. R. 386; *Seabold* v. *Comrs.*, 187 Penn. 3 *Tracey* v. *Banker*, 170 Mass. 266.

constitutionality of the Pennsylvania act was challenged on the ground of unjust discrimination, Mr. Justice Mitchell said:

> Legislation for a class distinguished from a general subject is not special but general, and classification is a legislative question, subject to judicial revision only so far as to see that it is founded on real distinction in the subjects classified and not on artificial and irrelevant ones used for the purpose of evading the constitutional prohibition. If the distinctions are genuine, the courts cannot declare the classification void.

In *Perkins* v. *Heert*, where the same question was raised, the New York Court of Appeals said:

> The label authorized was by a general and not a local act. No particular association or union has been given the exclusive privilege of adopting a label, but every association or union of every kind of working men or women is given the right to adopt its own label, which may indicate its own workmanship. It consequently follows that whatever discrimination there may be is authorized, and, therefore, not unjust, and that the privilege granted under the general law is in accord with public policy.

The courts have also held that such laws are not a violation of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution, as there is neither a deprivation of property without due process of law nor a denial of equal protection of the laws to all citizens.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Trend of Strikes

PRELIMINARY information indicates a downward trend in strikes beginning in April as compared with the preceding month, although the amount of strike activity throughout the country was still unusually high. In March there were more strikes than in any single month in the last 20 years. As compared with March, the April figures indicate a decrease of approximately 25 percent in the number of strikes occurring and a decrease of 35 percent in the number of workers involved in the strikes beginning in the month. Due to the fact that a large number of March strikes, including some of the largest ones, continued into April, the number of workers involved in strikes in progress during the month and the resulting number of man-days of idleness were a little higher than in March.

As compared with April a year ago, the 1937 figures for April show increases of 160 percent in number of strikes, 170 percent in number of workers involved, and 384 percent in man-days of idleness.

As indicated before, these comparisons are drawn from preliminary information which is subject to change. An analysis of strikes in April, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in the Monthly Labor Review for August 1937.

Trend of Strikes, January 1936 to April 1937 [1]

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1936								
Total for year	----	2,172	----	----	----	788,648	----	13,901,956
January	84	167	251	149	102	32,406	59,153	635,519
February	102	148	250	131	119	63,056	89,735	748,491
March	119	185	304	174	130	75,191	122,162	1,331,162
April	130	183	313	179	134	65,379	95,526	699,900
May	134	206	340	219	121	72,824	123,030	1,019,171
June	121	188	309	158	151	63,429	133,531	1,327,678
July	151	173	324	197	127	38,017	125,281	1,105,480
August	127	228	355	210	145	68,752	118,268	911,216
September	145	234	379	236	143	65,994	130,875	1,063,100
October	143	192	335	219	116	100,845	148,570	1,053,878
November	116	136	252	126	126	70,116	157,007	1,940,628
December	126	132	258	158	100	72,639	184,859	2,065,733
1937								
January	100	162	262	127	135	106,514	212,161	2,699,552
February	135	199	334	197	137	106,910	232,493	1,482,154
March [1]	137	625	762	487	275	280,000	340,000	3,285,000
April [1]	275	475	750	475	275	177,000	350,000	3,385,000

[1] Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table, nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

Analysis of Strikes in February 1937 [1]

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics has received detailed information on 199 strikes which began in February 1937 in which approximately 107,000 workers were involved. These strikes, combined with the 135 which continued into February from preceding months, made a total of 334 strikes in progress during the month in which 232,000 workers were involved and which resulted in 1,482,000 man-days of idleness in February.

About 60 percent of the strikes beginning in February were in 7 industry groups. There were 38 in textiles, 15 in the transportation equipment manufacturing, and 14 each in the iron and steel and the food industries and in building and construction. There were 13 strikes in the machinery manufacturing industries and 12 in the leather goods industries.

The greatest amount of time lost was in the automobile industry where there were more than 465,000 man-days of idleness because of strikes.

Table 1.—Strikes in February 1937, by Industry

Industry	Beginning in February		In progress during February		Man-days idle during February
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	**199**	**106,910**	**334**	**232,493**	**1,482,154**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**14**	**2,789**	**18**	**3,501**	**27,713**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	1	115	1	115	805
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	1	220	1	220	1,760
Forgings, iron and steel	1	210	1	210	210
Hardware	3	1,100	3	1,100	7,750
Stoves	1	426	2	876	10,320
Structural and ornamental metal work			1	8	8
Tin cans and other tinware			1	200	2,400
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws) (hand tools)	1	62	2	116	1,918
Wirework	2	346	2	346	682
Other	4	310	4	310	1,860
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**13**	**5,951**	**20**	**10,584**	**101,494**
Agricultural implements	1	40	2	2,190	19,630
Cash registers, adding machines, and typewriters			1	80	1,200
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	2	3,315	5	5,373	59,765
Foundry and machine-shop products	3	249	3	249	3,254
Other	7	2,347	9	2,692	17,645
Transportation equipment	**15**	**16,727**	**23**	**69,969**	**544,794**
Aircraft	2	6,742	2	6,742	24,684
Automobiles, bodies and parts	11	8,985	14	58,928	465,399
Shipbuilding	2	1,000	7	4,299	54,711
Nonferrous metals and their products	**5**	**1,591**	**7**	**1,893**	**10,762**
Brass, bronze, and copper products			1	138	1,794
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	1	981	1	981	3,924
Lighting equipment	2	300	2	300	3,430
Stamped and enameled ware	1	120	2	284	284
Other	1	190	1	190	1,330
Lumber and allied products	**3**	**133**	**12**	**1,654**	**14,290**
Furniture	2	108	9	999	9,350
Millwork and planing	1	25	2	55	140
Sawmills and logging camps			1	600	4,800
Stone, clay, and glass products			**2**	**280**	**5,015**
Glass			1	85	1,700
Pottery			1	195	3,315

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received (see footnote to preceding table). Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

Table 1.—Strikes in February 1937, by Industry—Continued

Industry	Beginning in February		In progress during February		Man-days idle during February
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Textiles and their products	**38**	**31,467**	**77**	**43,278**	**273,669**
Fabrics:					
Carpets and rugs	1	254	1	254	254
Cotton goods	1	531	1	531	2,655
Cotton small wares			1	96	96
Dyeing and finishing textiles	2	330	7	1,158	15,968
Silk and rayon goods	2	279	6	1,255	12,079
Woolen and worsted goods			3	1,531	27,110
Other	3	286	8	1,274	18,425
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	4	471	7	891	11,085
Clothing, women's	13	1,833	19	2,183	27,374
Corsets and allied garments	1	280	1	280	280
Men's furnishings	1	59	1	59	295
Hats, caps, and millinery	1	625	1	625	3,125
Shirts and collars	4	25,777	8	27,110	95,969
Hosiery	4	699	10	5,839	55,780
Knit goods	1	43	2	57	474
Other			1	135	2,700
Leather and its manufactures	**12**	**13,838**	**16**	**14,480**	**37,372**
Boots and shoes	6	12,093	8	12,474	29,806
Leather	1	149	3	410	3,528
Other leather goods	5	1,596	5	1,596	4,038
Food and kindred products	**14**	**1,501**	**17**	**1,984**	**11,365**
Baking	4	524	6	857	5,176
Beverages	1	18	1	18	36
Canning and preserving	1	155	2	305	4,555
Confectionery	1	10	1	10	90
Flour and grain mills	1	29	1	29	58
Slaughtering and meat packing	4	697	4	697	1,220
Other	2	68	2	68	230
Tobacco manufactures	**1**	**2,000**	**2**	**2,062**	**11,953**
Cigars	1	2,000	2	2,062	11,953
Paper and printing	**8**	**1,481**	**12**	**2,874**	**22,057**
Boxes, paper			1	15	135
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	1	9	1	9	45
Newspapers and periodicals	3	958	4	968	2,076
Other	4	514	6	1,882	19,801
Chemicals and allied products	**2**	**661**	**5**	**925**	**6,908**
Chemicals	1	330	1	330	1,320
Explosives			1	30	600
Fertilizers	1	331	2	361	2,948
Petroleum refining			1	204	2,040
Rubber products	**6**	**9,427**	**8**	**11,990**	**49,779**
Rubber tires and inner tubes	4	8,769	5	10,094	25,141
Other rubber goods	2	658	3	1,896	24,638
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**12**	**3,987**	**16**	**4,482**	**27,472**
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas	2	637	3	737	3,522
Furriers and fur factories	1	10	1	10	10
Other	9	3,340	12	3,735	23,940
Extraction of minerals	**5**	**6,885**	**9**	**8,170**	**45,802**
Coal mining, anthracite	4	6,634	5	7,684	40,264
Coal mining, bituminous	1	251	2	316	1,858
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			1	50	1,400
Crude-petroleum producing			1	120	2,280
Transportation and communication	**9**	**664**	**21**	**39,530**	**181,912**
Water transportation	4	446	8	37,968	160,110
Motortruck transportation	4	164	10	417	5,256
Motorbus transportation			1	291	6,693
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	1	54	2	854	9,853
Trade	**11**	**1,601**	**19**	**2,092**	**17,165**
Wholesale	4	486	7	608	5,157
Retail	7	1,115	12	1,484	12,008
Domestic and personal service	**8**	**1,980**	**13**	**2,751**	**12,893**
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	3	148	4	228	2,620
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors	1	14	2	41	761
Laundries	4	1,818	6	1,882	8,412
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)			1	600	1,100
Professional service	**2**	**106**	**2**	**106**	**202**
Recreation and amusement	1	10	1	10	10
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers	1	96	1	96	192
Building and construction	**14**	**3,606**	**24**	**5,543**	**39,690**
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.	7	2,367	11	3,291	27,395
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings)	7	1,239	13	2,252	12,295
Agriculture, etc.	**1**	**121**	**3**	**591**	**3,325**
Agriculture	1	121	3	591	3,325
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	**4**	**308**	**6**	**3,668**	**35,843**
Other nonmanufacturing industries	**2**	**86**	**2**	**86**	**679**

More strikes began in Michigan in the month of February than in any other State. Of the 199 strikes which began during the month, Michigan had 39, Pennsylvania 33, New York 29, and Ohio 23. The strikes in these four States constituted more than 60 percent of the total.

As indicated at the end of table 2, there were eight strikes in progress during February which extended into two or more States. The largest of these were the General Motors Corporation strike [1] which extended into six States, the West Coast maritime strike [2] in California, Oregon, and Washington, and a short strike of shirt workers in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut.

Table 2.—Strikes in February 1937, by States

State	Beginning in February		In progress during February		Man-days idle during February
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	199	106,910	334	232,493	1,482,154
Alabama	2	1,023	2	1,023	12,102
California	11	7,882	28	13,912	118,919
Colorado	1	44	1	44	660
Connecticut	2	710	3	810	3,310
Delaware	1	60	1	60	180
District of Columbia			1	19	437
Georgia	3	1,030	3	1,030	6,743
Illinois	9	2,997	17	4,158	35,064
Indiana	2	213	6	427	3,966
Maryland			2	2,125	12,125
Massachusetts	12	12,074	17	12,904	39,158
Michigan	39	17,663	43	18,457	107,561
Minnesota	4	719	6	749	2,608
Missouri	2	265	4	439	8,641
Montana	1	26	1	26	78
New Hampshire	1	260	1	260	1,300
New Jersey	6	666	16	1,897	27,634
New York	29	5,048	51	8,434	74,278
Ohio	23	14,537	34	17,129	71,307
Oklahoma			1	204	2,040
Oregon			3	675	13,500
Pennsylvania	33	11,748	55	23,048	157,277
Rhode Island	4	1,159	7	1,701	15,531
Tennessee			3	1,308	19,754
Texas	3	85	6	379	2,462
Washington	3	69	7	2,933	38,958
Wisconsin	3	2,637	7	6,123	47,753
Interstate	5	25,995	8	112,219	658,808

About 46 percent of the 199 strikes beginning in February involved less than 100 workers each; approximately the same number involved from 100 to 1,000 workers each; and about 7 percent of the strikes involved more than 1,000 workers each.

In table 3 the strikes in each industry group are classified according to the number of workers involved. In only two strikes were there as many as 10,000 workers involved. These were the short strike of shirt workers in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut, and a strike of shoe workers in Massachusetts.

[1] See Monthly Labor Review, March 1937, p. 666.
[2] Idem, April 1937, p. 813.

Table 3.—Strikes Beginning in February 1937, Classified by Number of Workers Involved

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries	199	34	57	72	22	10	2	2
Manufacturing								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	14	2	4	7	1			
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	13	1	3	5	3	1		
Transportation equipment	15	1	1	4	6	2	1	
Nonferrous metals and their products	5		1	3	1			
Lumber and allied products	3		3					
Textiles and their products	38	4	13	17	3			1
Leather and its manufactures	12	1	4	5	1			1
Food and kindred products	14	6	3	5				
Tobacco manufactures	1					1		
Paper and printing	8	3	2	2	1			
Chemicals and allied products	2			2				
Rubber products	6		1	2		2	1	
Miscellaneous manufactures	12	2	1	6	3			
Nonmanufacturing								
Extraction of minerals	5			3		2		
Transportation and communication	9	1	7	1				
Trade	11	3	3	4	1			
Domestic and personal service	8	3	3	1		1		
Professional service	2	1	1					
Building and construction	14	5	4	2	2	1		
Agriculture	1			1				
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	4		2	2				
Other nonmanufacturing industries	2	1	1					

Union organization matters were the major issues in more than half (55 percent) of the strikes beginning in February. Wages and hours were the major issues in 30 percent and in 15 percent the major issues were sympathy, union rivalry, jurisdiction, and miscellaneous grievances and demands. Although more strikes were over union organization matters, a greater number of workers were involved in the strikes over wages and hours. The 60 wage-and-hour strikes included 43 percent of the workers as compared with 38 percent in the 110 organization strikes.

Table 4.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in February 1937

Major issues	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	199	100.0	106,910	100.0
Wages and hours	60	30.2	46,228	43.2
Wage increase	40	20.2	44,434	41.5
Wage decrease	4	2.0	549	.5
Wage increase, hour decrease	14	7.0	1,175	1.1
Wage decrease, hour increase	1	.5	60	.1
Hour decrease	1	.5	10	(1)
Union organization	110	55.2	40,949	38.3
Recognition	19	9.5	4,376	4.1
Recognition and wages	31	15.6	18,924	17.6
Recognition, wages, and hours	44	22.1	12,037	11.3
Closed shop	7	3.5	3,922	3.7
Violation of agreement	2	1.0	78	.1
Discrimination	7	3.5	1,612	1.5
Miscellaneous	29	14.6	19,733	18.5
Sympathy	2	1.0	642	.6
Rival unions or factions	3	1.5	590	.6
Jurisdiction	4	2.0	669	.6
Other	20	10.1	17,832	16.7

[1] Less than 1/16 of 1 percent.

Of the 334 strikes in progress in February, 197 ended during the month. The average duration of these strikes was approximately 22 calendar days. About 38 percent of them ended in less than a week after they began and more than 60 percent lasted less than one-half month. In table 5 the strikes ending in February in each industry group are classified according to their duration. Twelve of the one hundred and ninty-seven strikes had been in progress for 3 months or more. The most important of these was the west coast maritime strike which began October 30, 1936, and was settled February 4, 1937.

Table 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in February 1937

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	197	75	47	30	27	6	12
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	11	6	2	2	1		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	12	5	1	2	3		1
Transportation equipment	12	4	2		3	2	1
Nonferrous metals and their products	4	2	1		1		
Lumber and allied products	9	2	3	3			1
Stone, clay, and glass products	1				1		
Textiles and their products	39	12	10	7	6	2	2
Leather and its manufactures	11	4	4	1	1	1	
Food and kindred products	6	6					
Tobacco manufactures	1						1
Paper and printing	9	3	1	4	1		
Chemicals and allied products	5	1	1	1	1		1
Rubber products	7	5	1	1			
Miscellaneous manufactures	9	5	1	1			2
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	7	2	2	1	2		
Transportation and communication	14	6	2	1	2		3
Trade	10	2	2	4	1	1	
Domestic and personal service	7	3	2		2		
Professional service	2	2					
Building and construction	13	3	7	2	1		
Agriculture, etc	2		2				
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	5	2	2		1		
Other nonmanufacturing industries	1		1				

In 47 percent of the strikes ending in February the settlements were negotiated directly by the employers and union representatives. Government conciliators and labor boards assisted in negotiating the settlements of 34.5 percent of the strikes. Some of the largest strikes were in this group, as shown by the fact that the group included 63 percent of the total number of workers involved.

Nearly 12 percent of the strikes, as indicated in table 6, were terminated without formal settlements. The strikers simply returned to work without settlements in most of these cases or they lost their jobs entirely when employers hired new workers to fill their places or went out of business.

Table 6.—Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in February 1937

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	197	100.0	171,482	100.0
Employers and workers directly	10	5.1	1,152	.7
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	92	46.7	55,956	32.6
Government conciliators or labor boards	68	34.5	108,427	63.3
Private conciliators or arbitrators	4	2.0	1,095	.6
Terminated without formal settlement	23	11.7	4,852	2.8

Fifty-six percent of the strikes ending in February resulted in substantial gains to the workers. This group included the larger strikes and about 82 percent of the total number of workers. About 21 percent of the strikes, including 12 percent of the workers, resulted in compromises and 17 percent of the strikes, including 4 percent of the workers, resulted in little or no gains to the workers. (See table 7.)

Table 7.—Results of Strikes Ending in February 1937

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	197	100.0	171,482	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	111	56.4	140,074	81.7
Partial gains or compromises	42	21.3	21,116	12.3
Little or no gains to workers	34	17.3	7,017	4.1
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	6	3.0	1,274	.7
Indeterminate	3	1.5	1,990	1.2
Not reported	1	.5	11	(1)

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

In table 8 the results of the strikes ending in February are shown in relation to the major issues involved. The proportion of successful strikes, from the workers' point of view, was greater in the strikes over union organization matters than in those over wages and hours. Approximately 65 percent of the organization strikes were successful as compared with 50 percent of the wage-and-hour disputes. The workers obtained compromises as a result of 18 percent of the organization disputes as compared with 28 percent of the wage-and-hour disputes; and they lost 17 percent of the strikes over organization matters as compared with 20 percent where the major issues were wages and hours. The proportion of workers who were successful was about the same in each of the two groups—approximately 87 percent in each case.

Table 8.—Results of Strikes Ending in February 1937, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issues	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Number of strikes						
All issues	197	111	42	34	6	3	1
Wages and hours	60	30	17	12			1
Wage increase	37	18	10	8			1
Wage decrease	4	2	1	1			
Wage increase, hour decrease	16	8	6	2			
Wage decrease, hour increase	1			1			
Hour decrease	2	2					
Union organization	111	72	20	19			
Recognition	17	11	1	5			
Recognition and wages	23	13	7	3			
Recognition, wages, and hours	55	42	8	5			
Closed shop	5	2	2	1			
Violation of agreement	2	1		1			
Discrimination	9	3	2	4			
Miscellaneous	26	9	5	3	6	3	
Sympathy	2					2	
Rival unions or factions	3				3		
Jurisdiction	3				3		
Other	18	9	5	3		1	
	Number of workers involved						
All issues	171,482	140,074	21,116	7,017	1,274	1,990	11
Wages and hours	36,475	31,671	2,062	2,731			11
Wage increase	34,211	30,665	1,400	2,135			11
Wage decrease	824	312	12	500			
Wage increase, hour decrease	1,355	669	650	36			
Wage decrease, hour increase	60			60			
Hour decrease	25	25					
Union organization	121,332	106,053	12,306	2,973			
Recognition	53,630	52,467	200	963			
Recognition and wages	9,879	6,589	3,160	130			
Recognition, wages, and hours	52,261	45,674	5,535	1,052			
Closed shop	3,537	160	3,347	30			
Violation of agreement	78	70		8			
Discrimination	1,947	1,093	64	790			
Miscellaneous	13,675	2,350	6,748	1,313	1,274	1,990	
Sympathy	643					643	
Rival unions or factions	620				620		
Jurisdiction	654				654		
Other	11,758	2,350	6,748	1,313		1,347	

Conciliation Work of the Department of Labor, April 1937

DURING April 1937, conciliators of the Department of Labor mediated in 158 disputes involving directly and indirectly about 99,100 workers. This mediation service was requested by either one or both parties to the disputes. Some of these disputes had already developed into strikes before the Department of Labor was requested to intervene. In others, strikes were threatened but had not yet taken place. In some cases, although no strike was immediately threatened, a controversy between employer and workers had developed to such a stage that an outside mediator was deemed necessary.

The Department of Labor conciliators were successful in adjusting 83 of these 158 disputes, while 71 were still pending at the close of the month. Four were referred to other agencies.

The majority of these disputes concerned demands for wage increases. Many were due to alleged discrimination against union members or for demands for union recognition. Some were concerned with hours, overtime pay, seniority rights, and general working conditions.

These 158 disputes were scattered among 25 different States and the District of Columbia. Workers involved in the disputes are classified by craft in table 2.

Table 1.—Disputes Handled by Conciliators, April 1937, in Each State

State	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Alabama	2	72	1	57	1	15
Alaska	1	1,000	1	1,000		
California	6	5,659	3	5,599	3	60
Connecticut	2	450			2	450
District of Columbia	1	[1] 2,000	1	[1] 2,000		
Illinois	14	[1] 28,008	4	[1] 22,050	10	5,958
Indiana	6	[1] 981	3	[1] 690	3	291
Iowa	8	[1] 1,463	4	830	4	[1] 633
Kansas	2	224	1	122	1	102
Kentucky	1	3	1	3		
Maine	2	600	1	300	1	300
Massachusetts	7	2,212	1	275	6	1,937
Michigan	6	9,070	1	70	5	9,000
Missouri	3	[1] 1,950	1		2	[1] 1,950
Minnesota	4	[1] 3,832	4	[1] 3,622		210
New Jersey	4	1,164	1	900	3	264
New York	18	[1] 5,799	7	2,499	11	[1] 3,300
Ohio	11	[1] 10,137	4	[1] 1,320	7	8,817
Oregon	1	(1)			1	(1)
Pennsylvania	26	[1] 10,747	5	[1] 805	21	[1] 9,942
Rhode Island	2	[1] 350			2	[1] 350
Tennessee	6	[1] 3,256	5	[1] 3,125	1	131
Texas	7	[1] 2,214	4	[1] 841	3	[1] 1,373
Virginia	3	[1] 391	2	[1] 316	1	75
Washington	6	3,242	2	1,541	4	1,701
Wisconsin	9	[1] 4,283	4	[1] 2,265	5	[1] 2,018
Total	158	[1] 99,107	61	[1] 50,230	97	[1] 48,877

[1] Exact number of workers not known.

Table 2.—Disputes Handled by Conciliators, by Craft of Workers Involved, April 1937

Craft	Total		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Automobile workers	6	3,935	2	2,900	4	1,035
Blind workers	1				1	(1)
Brick and clay	2		1	(1)	1	(1)
Building	12	[1] 11,275	7	[1] 10,700	5	575
Clerks	4	1,591	1	400	3	1,191
Clothing	10	[1] 2,425			10	[1] 2,425
Drivers	19	[1] 5,380	8	[1] 1,412	11	[1] 3,968
Electrical workers	6	[1] 2,190	2	515	4	[1] 1,675
Food handlers	5	8,372	2	5,122	3	3,250
Fur workers	1	(1)			1	(1)
Furniture workers	9	1,332	2	316	7	1,016
Hotel workers	4	5,139	2	4,599	2	540
Leather workers	1	800			1	800
Machinists and mechanics	19	9,822	7	4,540	12	5,282
Mine, mill, and smelter	4	360	2	175	2	185
Optical workers	1				1	(1)
Printers and pressmen	9	2,335	3	257	6	2,078
Refinery workers	1				1	(1)
Rubber workers	4	6,250	1	450	3	5,800
Ship workers	6	12,581	6	12,581		
Steel and iron	8	[1] 19,079	3	[1] 672	5	18,407
Textile workers	4	2,700	1	1,075	3	1,625
Wood workers	9	[1] 955	2	[1] 55	7	900
Miscellaneous	13	[1] 2,586	9	2,330	4	[1] 256
Total	158	[1] 99,107	61	[1] 48,099	97	[1] 51,008

[1] Exact number of workers not known.

LABOR AGREEMENTS

Vacations With Pay Under Union Agreements

ALLOWANCES for vacations with pay for production workers are becoming increasingly popular. Provisions for vacations with pay are found in approximately 180 union agreements on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics.[1] There is considerable variation in the vacation provisions for the various industries. Annual paid vacations are general among licensed ship officers and in the rubber and petroleum industries, but the practice is fairly common on city street-railway and bus lines, in retail trade, and in newspaper editorial rooms. Elsewhere vacation provisions are the exception rather than the rule. In many industries of a highly seasonal nature in which there are periodic general shut-downs, the need for establishing annual paid vacations has not been recognized to the extent that it has in industries furnishing year-round employment.

In 28 agreements 1 year's [2] service is required before vacations were earned. In 10 agreements 6 months' service is required, and in 3 as much as 9 or 10 years. A number of agreements require 2 to 5 years of employment with the firm before vacations are granted. In one agreement women are required to have 3 years of service and men 4 years. Long-service records as a requirement for vacations are especially characteristic of agreements in the rubber industry. Some agreements make no specification regarding length of service. One agreement specifically provides that time spent in joint negotiations or in the service of the union is to be considered working time for this purpose.

About an equal number of agreements provide for 1- and 2-week vacations. There are no vacations for longer than 2 weeks, but several agreements provide variously for 3-, 8-, or 10-day vacations. In several agreements the vacation is increased from 1 to 2 weeks after 2 years of service; in others after longer periods of service. Two weeks' vacation is not given under two agreements until after 10 years of employment. In two instances 1 day's vacation is given for each year of service up to 1 week and in two others up to 2 weeks.

[1] Agreements covering railroad and air transportation are not included in the Bureau's file.

[2] The equivalent of a year's service was defined as 60 and 80 percent of the working days in 1 agreement each and as 32 and 40 weeks in 2 others.

The most restricted vacation allowances are those granting 3-day vacations after a year of service and 1-week vacations after 10 years of service. The most liberal are the 2-week vacations after 1 year's service. Four brewery agreements provide vacations for watchmen only. In these plants the watchmen work much longer hours than the other workers. In one maritime agreement only cooks are given vacations, 1 day for every 2 weeks at sea, the vacation being granted at the end of the voyage or paid for at the rate of 9 hours of overtime pay for each day of accrued vacation.

For the most part, workers are specifically required to take the vacations earned, accrued leave being paid for in case of discharge or lay-off. Two tailors' agreements provide that any tailor found working during his vacation must turn over his earnings during that time to the union. Four licensed engine-room officers' agreements, however, permit the taking of an extra 2-weeks' pay if it is impossible to grant the vacation due and another permits the accepting of 1 week's bonus in lieu of the vacation unless there is a general shut-down. One provides that accumulated vacations shall not be granted in any year during which profits do not justify the practice.

In 20 agreements vacations must be taken during the summer months, but 2 truck drivers' agreements specify that vacations can be granted only during the winter. Most agreements do not designate who shall set the vacation schedule, but some give this right exclusively to the employer and others specifiy mutual agreement must be secured. In eight agreements vacation preferences are to be considered in accordance with seniority. A few agreements specify that a certain amount of notice must be given each employee before his vacation is scheduled. This notice time varies from 1 to 4 weeks. In one agreement the employer is prohibited from scheduling a vacation during a week with a holiday unless the worker affected gives his consent.

Although most agreements do not specify when the vacation pay must be given, three agreements provide that pay for the vacation is to be given in advance. Vacation pay is usually the average of previous earnings, but in one case $25 for men and $20 for women is set as the pay for 1 week's vacation. Another agreement provides for vacation pay on the basis of 2 percent of the yearly earnings for each week of vacation, but no man is to be paid less than $20 and no woman less than $14 each week. In the recent agreements covering the subsidiaries of the U. S. Steel Corporation, vacations are paid for on the basis of the hours worked during the two previous pay periods, but at least 40 and no more than 48 hours of pay are to be given. In two agreements part-time workers are granted the same vacation periods, but in one pay is in accordance with previous earnings and in the other one-twelfth of the vacation pay is forfeited during each month of lay-off.

Typical Provisions Regarding Vacations in Union Agreements

THE most common form of provision regulating vacations states simply that—

All employees, upon completion of 1 year of continuous service, shall be entitled to 1 week's vacation with full pay.

Where additional vacation rights are acquired with longer service, a provision such as the following is added:

After completing 2 years' service employees shall be entitled to 2 weeks' vacation with full pay.

A typical provision regulating the vacation pay of hourly workers reads:

Those who are granted vacations will be paid on their average rate of earnings per hour for the two pay periods immediately preceding their vacation.

The following provision illustrates the requirement that an employee cannot accept pay in lieu of his vacation unless he is leaving the service of the employer:

Vacations due in any calendar year must be taken during that year * * *. In the event an employee who is eligible for a vacation in accordance with article —, section —, shall leave the employ of the employer, he shall be compensated in money equivalent to his accumulated vacation period.

An example of a provision regulating the vacation schedule and giving preference on the basis of seniority is:

On or before April 1 of each year, employees will be invited to express their preferences as to when they shall take their vacations. In the assignment of vacation time, the management will, as far as is feasible, comply with such requests, giving preference to the requests of senior men. Vacation schedules will be posted as soon as is possible after April 1.

LABOR TURN-OVER

Labor Turn-Over in Manufacturing Establishments, March 1937

A SHARP increase in the hiring rate in manufacturing industries compared with the corresponding month in 1936 was indicated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over in manufacturing establishments in March.

Marked increases over a year ago were also shown in the quit and discharge rates. The lay-off rate declined from 1.83 to 1.53 per 100 employees.

All classes of separations showed an increase over the preceding month. The largest increase was indicated in the quit rate. The total separation rate rose from 2.85 per 100 workers in February to 3.20 in March. The accession rate increased slightly over the February rate.

All Manufacturing

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments, which in March employed nearly 2,500,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 16 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows for manufacturing as a whole the total separation rate, subdivided into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates, and the accession rate, for each month of 1936 and for the first 3 months of 1937. The average monthly rates for 1936 are also presented.

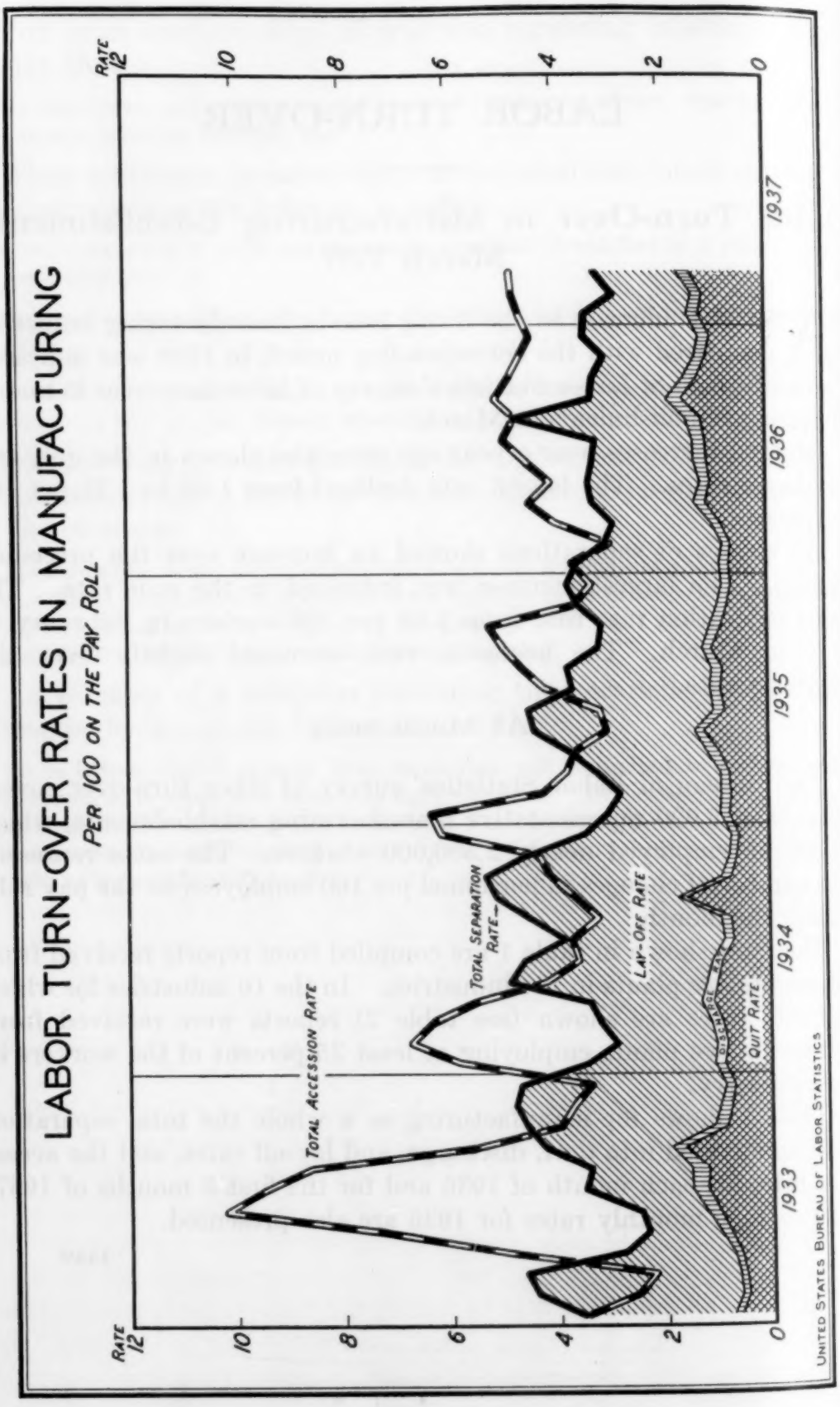
LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
TOTAL ACCESSION RATE
TOTAL SEPARATION RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
QUIT RATE
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Table 1.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries

Class of rate and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Quit rate:													
1937	1.27	1.19	1.43										
1936	.71	.68	.86	1.16	1.06	1.13	1.15	1.23	1.57	1.29	1.13	1.05	1.09
Discharge rate:													
1937	.21	.22	.24										
1936	.20	.17	.19	.21	.20	.23	.23	.27	.26	.24	.21	.22	.22
Lay-off rate: [1]													
1937	1.90	1.44	1.53										
1936	2.66	2.21	1.83	1.92	2.06	1.92	1.84	3.23	1.47	1.72	1.70	2.14	2.06
Total separation rate:													
1937	3.38	2.85	3.20										
1936	3.57	3.06	2.88	3.29	3.32	3.28	3.22	4.73	3.30	3.25	3.04	3.41	3.37
Accession rate:													
1937	4.60	4.71	4.74										
1936	3.65	2.95	3.97	4.46	4.05	4.49	4.94	4.72	5.09	4.83	4.60	4.41	4.35

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Sixteen Industries

In addition to the information for manufacturing as a whole detailed labor turn-over rates for March are available for 16 separate industries.

Petroleum refineries reported the lowest quit rate (0.70 per 100 employees) of any of the 16 industries. The highest (3.67) occurred in plants manufacturing hardware.

The lowest discharge rate (0.09) was shown by plants producing rubber tires and in the iron and steel industry. Foundries and machine shops and the automobile parts manufacturing establishments reported the highest (0.43). The lowest lay-off rate (0.46) and the lowest total separation rate (1.28) occurred in the rubber-tire industry, and the highest lay-off rate (6.77) and total separation rate (9.10) in the automobile parts manufacturing industry.

The lowest accession rate (1.26) was reported in rubber-tire manufacturing plants. Brick manufacturing registered the highest (12.80).

United States Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries

Class of rates	March 1937	February 1937	March 1936	March 1937	February 1937	March 1936	March 1937	February 1937	March 1936
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	1.50	1.44	0.92	1.90	4.29	1.40	1.31	1.04	0.68
Discharge	.23	.19	.18	.43	.46	.39	.26	.32	.18
Lay-off	6.25	1.54	1.77	6.77	2.95	2.81	1.47	.99	1.78
Total separation	7.98	3.17	2.87	9.10	7.70	4.30	3.04	2.35	2.64
Accession	4.61	10.23	4.98	7.92	6.69	5.87	3.18	4.07	1.85
	Bricks			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Quit	1.45	1.29	0.84	1.48	3.46	0.93	1.68	1.81	1.16
Discharge	.37	.25	.20	.17	.09	.25	.30	.28	.30
Lay-off	2.01	3.57	2.93	1.69	.46	1.45	1.01	.93	2.29
Total separation	3.83	5.06	3.97	3.34	4.01	2.63	2.99	3.02	3.75
Accession	12.80	6.29	13.09	4.11	4.62	3.09	3.86	4.15	2.97
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Quit	1.11	0.96	0.76	1.67	1.56	1.07	1.48	1.09	0.81
Discharge	.17	.15	.16	.43	.35	.29	.37	.27	.17
Lay-off	3.91	.46	1.15	1.00	1.05	1.32	2.52	3.46	3.16
Total separation	5.19	1.57	2.07	3.10	2.96	2.68	4.37	4.82	4.14
Accession	6.11	6.34	4.93	7.07	6.86	5.17	5.00	4.34	3.45
	Hardware			Iron and steel			Men's clothing		
Quit	3.67	1.84	0.62	0.97	0.99	0.75	1.09	0.94	0.80
Discharge	.26	.40	.15	.09	.09	.10	.16	.13	.07
Lay-off	1.00	1.30	1.14	.53	.39	.68	1.35	.89	1.86
Total separation	4.93	3.54	1.91	1.59	1.47	1.53	2.60	1.96	2.73
Accession	4.97	6.08	2.70	5.47	5.04	2.51	2.48	3.79	2.45
	Petroleum refining			Rubber tires			Sawmills		
Quit	0.70	0.64	0.60	0.73	0.61	0.48	2.00	1.70	1.57
Discharge	.11	.10	.08	.09	.08	.05	.36	.26	.31
Lay-off	1.40	1.08	1.90	.46	.39	.80	2.54	3.30	3.05
Total separation	2.21	1.82	2.58	1.28	1.08	1.33	4.90	5.26	4.94
Accession	3.84	2.69	3.48	1.26	1.64	2.08	10.01	9.93	9.86
	Slaughtering and meat packing								
Quit	0.86	0.95	0.81						
Discharge	.27	.25	.21						
Lay-off	5.92	9.92	5.95						
Total separation	7.05	11.12	6.97						
Accession	5.47	5.95	6.52						

COST OF LIVING

Money Disbursements of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in Five Pennsylvania Cities[1]

THE general outlines of the spending pattern of workers in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Scranton, Johnstown, and Lancaster are like those found in other cities for which data are so far available in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' study of money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers. In Philadelphia and Pittsburg, Negro as well as white families were studied.[2] From city to city, and among colored families as well as white, the percentages of total current family expenditure allocated to food, clothing, housing, and other main classes exhibit a marked general consistency. Within this general similarity of pattern there are of course important variations from city to city and among colored families as contrasted with white families. These variations are due in part, as pointed out in a previous article, to differences in costs between one city and another, and in part to variations in average size of family and average income, in the physical situation of the cities studied, in State and municipal regulations affecting consumer purchasing, and in the traditions of their workers. Social restrictions also influence family expenditures.

In Philadelphia, where the proportion of home owners is particularly large among the white families, this group had a lower percentage of total current expenditure devoted to housing than did the other groups studied in any of the five cities. Figures on the value of the imputed income based on rental value of owned homes will be available at a later date. The relatively limited type of housing available to Negroes is reflected in the higher percentages spent for housing by Negroes in Pittsburgh and Philadelphia as compared with the white

[1] Prepared by Alice C. Hanson, of the Bureau's Cost of Living Division.

The Pennsylvania surveys were undertaken in cooperation with the State Emergency Relief Board, Emmett H. Welch, director, division of research and statistics, and tabulations were completed in cooperation with the State Department of Labor and Industry, Ralph Bashore, secretary, and the Pennsylvania Works Progress Administration, under the supervision of Samuel M. Gahagen. In Philadelphia the following persons served on an advisory committee: Miss Sadye Adelson, Jewish Welfare Society; Prof. C. C. Balderston, University of Pennsylvania; Prof. J. Parker Bursk, University of Pennsylvania; Dr. Ewan Clague, Pennsylvania School of Social Work; Dr. Eleanor Lansing Dulles, University of Pennsylvania; John Edelman, Amalgamated Hosiery Workers' Union; Roger F. Evans, Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce; Wayne Hopkins, Armstrong Association; Dr. Gladys Palmer, University of Pennsylvania; Miss S. Saffian, Jewish Welfare Society; Dr. C. A. Sienkiewicz, Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia. In Pittsburgh the field work was undertaken in cooperation with the Allegheny County Consumers' Council, Mrs. Oliver J. Haller, chairman, and in Scranton with the Lackawanna County Consumers' Council, Mrs. Joseph A. Battle, chairman.

[2] Data on expenditures of 200 single individuals in Philadelphia are in process of tabulation and will be available at a later date.

families in the same cities. Probably as a corollary, the Negroes spent a lower percentage on food than did the white families.

The distribution of the current expenditures of the 1,739 white and 198 colored families studied, in all five cities, for 1 year during the period between November 1933 and May 1935, is shown in table 1.

Table 1.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by Families in 5 Pennsylvania Cities, 1933–35

Item	Philadelphia		Pittsburgh		Scranton: White	Johnstown: White	Lancaster: White
	White	Negro	White	Negro			
Number of families studied	498	101	346	97	231	153	151
Average number of members in economic family	4.04	3.76	3.96	3.16	3.75	4.19	3.32
Average number of consumption units per family	3.73	3.45	3.61	2.84	3.33	3.90	3.24
Average total current expenditure	$1,603	$1,182	$1,484	$1,072	$1,413	$1,182	$1,312
	Percentage distribution						
Expenditure for—							
Food	36.2	33.8	33.1	32.0	35.6	31.9	33.7
Clothing	10.7	9.6	10.4	9.0	11.0	10.5	11.2
Housing	15.4	20.8	19.1	22.7	18.6	17.6	16.2
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	7.8	9.7	6.5	8.4	8.4	7.3	9.8
Other household operation	4.0	3.0	3.7	3.7	3.1	3.9	4.0
Furnishings and equipment	3.8	3.0	4.3	3.6	4.2	4.6	3.7
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	3.5	2.1	4.5	2.8	2.8	5.2	4.0
Other transportation	3.6	4.5	3.2	3.2	1.5	2.2	1.4
Personal care	2.1	2.1	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.8	2.1
Medical care	3.2	2.8	4.0	3.5	3.8	4.8	4.1
Recreation	5.3	4.8	5.4	4.7	4.1	5.1	5.9
Education	.4	.3	.2	.1	.4	.3	.5
Vocation	.3	.1	.3	.2	.8	.2	(1)
Community welfare	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.5	2.0	2.7	1.5
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	1.6	1.9	1.1	2.3	1.2	1.7	1.3
Miscellaneous items	.7	.1	.7	.2	.7	.2	.6
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Less than 0.05 percent.

The families studied in each city have been grouped in table 2 to take account of differences in number of members dependent on the family fund and total funds available for spending. The basis of classification is the total family expenditure per consumption unit, an explanation of which was presented in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1936 (pp. 558–559). When the families are grouped according to economic level in this manner, differences in expenditure among families living within the same city are clearly disclosed.

The relationships between economic level (as expressed in expenditure per consumption unit groups) and percentages of total expenditure allocated to the various main categories of consumption, as food, housing, clothing, transportation, etc., are similar to those observed in other cities for which data are so far available.[3] At the higher

[3] Articles on money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers have appeared in the following issues of the Monthly Labor Review: March 1936, May 1936, June 1936, September 1936, and January 1937.

economic levels the relative pressure of other wants is evidenced by the lower percentage spent for food. That Pennsylvanians like to go places, preferably on wheels, is attested by the sharp increase in relative expenditures for automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance with shift from the lower to the higher expenditure levels. The fact that percentages spent for housing decreased among Negro families at the higher economic levels is another indication of the relatively high rents paid by Negroes for dwellings of any sort. The percentage of expenditure allotted to housing remains approximately the same among the white families at different levels. It should be noted, however, that the average total expenditure of the entire group of Negro families is lower than that of the white families, and that in both Philadelphia and Pittsburgh the proportion of white families at the higher economic levels is greater than that of Negro families at those levels. The proportion spent for clothing remains approximately the same at all expenditure levels studied for both white and Negro families in the five cities; that for fuel, light, and refrigeration remains relatively stable from level to level, but the percentage spent for furnishings and equipment to increase the comfort and appearance of the home increases rapidly with change from lower to higher economic level.

The percentage spent by families at the higher expenditure levels remains about the same as by families at the lower levels, for personal care, education, and vocational expense, and the same is true for all cities studied except Scranton for the items of medical care and recreation; in Scranton, which is a coal-mining center, the increase in these items is relatively greater than in the other items at the higher economic levels. Contributions to community welfare, which include taxes, contributions to community chest and to religious organizations, take a higher percentage of total family expenditure at the higher economic levels.

Table 2.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by Families at Different Economic Levels in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, 1933–35

White families

Item	Families with expenditure per consumption unit of—							
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700	$700 and under $800	$800 and over
Philadelphia								
Number of families	25	83	96	82	70	60	39	43
Average number of members in economic family	7.17	5.64	4.34	3.95	3.28	3.06	2.77	2.35
Average number of consumption units per family	6.43	5.09	4.00	3.64	3.06	2.90	2.68	2.23
Average total current expenditure	$1,070	$1,292	$1,361	$1,632	$1,679	$1,865	$1,976	$2,148

Table 2.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by Families at Different Economic Levels in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, 1933–35—Continued

White families—Continued

Item	Percentage distribution							
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700	$700 and under $800	$800 and over
Philadelphia—Continued								
Expenditure for—								
Food	49.1	43.0	40.7	36.2	35.9	32.3	30.4	28.3
Clothing	9.9	10.1	9.6	11.2	10.5	12.3	10.0	10.9
Housing	13.0	15.1	16.2	15.5	15.1	14.8	15.7	15.7
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	9.4	9.6	8.8	8.2	7.8	7.0	6.8	5.2
Other household operation	3.5	3.3	3.5	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.1	4.4
Furnishings and equipment	2.2	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.6	5.1	3.6	7.1
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	.6	.9	2.0	1.8	3.3	5.0	7.7	6.8
Other transportation	3.1	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.2
Personal care	1.9	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.0	2.0	1.8
Medical care	2.4	2.3	2.8	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.0	4.3
Recreation	3.4	4.3	4.8	5.5	5.8	6.1	6.0	5.6
Education	.4	.6	.6	.2	.2	.3	.2	.5
Vocation	.1	.3	.3	.4	.4	.2	.3	.3
Community welfare	.8	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.4
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	.2	.6	.6	1.7	1.5	2.1	2.8	3.1
Miscellaneous items	------	.8	.1	.4	.6	.4	2.4	1.4
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Item	Families with expenditure per consumption unit of—						
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700	$700 and over
Pittsburgh							
Number of families	11	64	76	65	54	38	38
Average number of members in economic family	6.58	5.83	4.41	3.60	3.14	2.82	2.15
Average number of consumption units per family	5.83	5.22	3.92	3.31	2.92	2.66	2.08
Average total current expenditure	$1,005	$1,298	$1,396	$1,478	$1,593	$1,711	$1,767
	Percentage distribution						
Expenditure for—							
Food	42.8	41.0	36.1	33.6	28.6	29.5	24.7
Clothing	10.7	11.4	10.9	10.4	9.9	9.6	9.2
Housing	14.6	16.1	18.7	20.0	20.6	19.5	20.0
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	7.7	7.3	7.1	6.8	6.3	5.0	5.2
Other household operation	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.7	3.9	3.5	4.9
Furnishings and equipment	2.0	2.1	4.4	4.6	5.1	6.0	4.2
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	.3	1.5	2.1	2.6	5.6	5.5	12.8
Other transportation	4.4	3.3	3.6	3.6	3.0	3.1	2.5
Personal care	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.6
Medical care	3.0	3.9	3.3	3.4	5.9	4.3	4.0
Recreation	5.8	5.3	5.6	5.4	5.3	6.0	5.2
Education	.4	.3	.1	.3	.2	.5	.1
Vocation	.9	.2	.1	.3	.3	.4	.7
Community welfare	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.9	2.2
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	.1	.4	.7	1.2	1.9	1.9	2.1
Miscellaneous items	.3	.3	.4	.7	1.4	1.5	.6
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 2.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by Families at Different Economic Levels in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, 1933–35—Continued

Negro families

Item	Families with expenditure per consumption unit of—					
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and over
Philadelphia						
Number of families	8	24	23	15	16	15
Average number of members in economic family	8.33	4.92	3.71	2.82	2.29	2.05
Average number of consumption units per family	7.27	4.37	3.47	2.66	2.25	1.82
Average total current expenditures	$960	$1,067	$1,200	$1,204	$1,218	$1,388
	Percentage distribution					
Expenditure for—						
Food	47.9	37.3	33.7	32.3	30.2	29.4
Clothing	4.9	9.7	10.2	9.9	10.1	10.0
Housing	24.3	22.3	21.5	20.5	20.5	17.6
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	10.0	11.0	9.8	9.2	10.3	7.7
Other household operation	2.7	2.2	3.8	2.2	3.4	3.6
Furnishings and equipment	.7	1.9	1.4	3.9	3.8	5.8
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	.2	.2	3.1	1.2	.3	6.1
Other transportation	2.6	4.6	3.2	5.2	5.5	4.6
Personal care	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.4	1.8	2.0
Medical care	1.1	2.6	2.6	4.7	2.0	3.0
Recreation	1.7	4.0	5.8	4.7	5.5	5.2
Education	.2	.1	.2	.1	.5	.1
Vocation	-------	.1	.1	.2	.1	.2
Community welfare	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	2.3	1.5
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	-------	.6	1.2	2.2	3.4	3.2
Miscellaneous items	.7	-------	-------	-------	.3	-------
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Item	Families with expenditure per consumption unit of—					
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and over
Pittsburgh						
Number of families	5	22	22	23	12	13
Average number of members in economic family	8.49	3.86	3.07	2.54	2.14	2.09
Average number of consumption units per family	7.78	3.13	2.85	2.38	2.04	2.01
Average total current expenditures	$1,190	$902	$985	$1,073	$1,110	$1,416
	Percentage distribution					
Expenditure for—						
Food	42.4	37.7	33.0	31.7	27.6	24.8
Clothing	5.5	8.5	8.8	9.5	10.8	9.1
Housing	24.3	23.4	23.9	22.2	21.9	21.6
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	8.5	9.6	9.3	8.5	7.7	6.9
Other household operation	3.9	3.3	2.9	3.6	2.9	3.9
Furnishings and equipment	3.8	3.8	2.3	3.2	4.4	5.2
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	2.0	.2	2.9	2.5	5.5	4.2
Other transportation	1.6	2.8	3.7	3.8	2.1	3.4
Personal care	1.3	2.4	1.9	2.5	2.3	1.8
Medical care	1.8	2.4	3.2	3.7	4.6	4.5
Recreation	2.8	3.8	4.9	4.3	5.8	5.4
Education	.5	.1	.1	(1)	-------	-------
Vocation	.3	-------	.2	.5	-------	.1
Community welfare	.8	1.3	1.2	2.0	1.6	1.7
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	.5	.7	.7	1.6	2.7	7.1
Miscellaneous items	-------	(1)	(1)	.4	.1	.3
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Less than 0.05 percent.

Table 3.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by White Families at Different Economic Levels in Scranton, Johnstown, and Lancaster, 1933–35

Item	Families with expenditure per consumption unit of—					
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and over
Scranton						
Number of families	6	32	58	51	44	40
Average number of members in economic family	5.97	5.37	4.28	3.58	2.94	2.46
Average number of consumption units per family	5.36	4.60	3.82	3.19	2.62	2.25
Average total current expenditure	$920	$1,192	$1,329	$1,423	$1,479	$1,695
	Percentage distribution					
Expenditure for—						
Food	41.8	42.3	38.9	35.4	34.2	28.9
Clothing	9.9	10.3	11.8	10.8	11.1	10.8
Housing	24.4	18.1	18.9	19.9	16.7	18.3
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	10.2	9.0	9.2	8.9	7.8	7.1
Other household operation	2.2	2.8	2.7	3.3	2.9	4.0
Furnishings and equipment	.5	1.9	3.5	3.7	6.3	5.0
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	2.4	1.6	1.9	1.8	4.1	4.6
Other transportation	.5	2.0	1.0	1.7	1.6	1.5
Personal care	1.3	2.1	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.7
Medical care	1.2	2.6	2.9	4.4	4.7	4.0
Recreation	1.7	3.5	3.2	4.4	4.2	5.1
Education	.1	.6	.4	.1	.2	1.1
Vocation	.8	.8	.9	.7	.9	.8
Community welfare	2.5	2.0	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.1
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	.5	.3	.8	.8	1.4	2.2
Miscellaneous items	-------	.1	.1	.4	(1)	2.8
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Item	Families with expenditure per consumption unit of—			
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and over
Johnstown				
Number of families	29	37	46	41
Average number of members in economic family	6.37	5.20	3.58	2.85
Average number of consumption units per family	5.73	4.66	3.29	2.61
Average total current expenditure	$868	$1,150	$1,122	$1,494
	Percentage distribution			
Expenditure for—				
Food	40.3	36.5	31.6	25.3
Clothing	8.7	11.6	10.5	10.6
Housing	18.1	16.3	18.8	17.1
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	8.4	7.3	7.2	6.7
Other household operation	4.3	4.1	3.4	4.2
Furnishings and equipment	2.5	3.9	5.1	5.8
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	1.6	3.0	5.3	8.3
Other transportation	2.5	2.3	1.9	2.1
Personal care	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.6
Medical care	3.8	3.8	3.9	6.6
Recreation	4.0	4.3	6.0	5.2
Education	.6	.8	.2	.1
Vocation	.1	.1	.2	.4
Community welfare	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.7
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	.3	1.0	1.0	3.2
Miscellaneous items	.2	.3	.4	.1
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Less than 0.05 percent.

Table 3.—Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by White Families at Different Economic Levels in Scranton, Johnstown, and Lancaster, 1933–35—Continued

Item	Families with expenditure per consumption unit of—			
	Under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and over
Lancaster				
Numbe of families	35	40	31	45
Average number of members in economic family	5.25	3.58	3.12	2.40
Average number of consumption units per family	4.64	3.27	2.94	2.34
Average total current expenditure	$1,168	$1,160	$1,316	$1,566
	Percentage distribution			
Expenditure for—				
Food	40.2	36 7	32.9	28.2
Clothing	11.6	10.8	10.6	11.3
Housing	16.0	16.9	15.6	16.0
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	11.4	10.1	9.6	8.8
Other household operation	3.5	3.5	3.7	4.6
Furnishings and equipment	2.7	3.4	5.3	3.7
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	1.0	2.3	3.0	7.5
Other transportation	1.0	.9	1.6	1.8
Personal care	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.1
Medical care	3.2	5.3	4.5	3.7
Recreation	4.8	5.9	6.8	6.2
Education	.5	.1	.2	.9
Vocation			.1	.1
Community welfare	1.2	1.1	2.1	1.7
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the family	.7	.5	1.1	2.3
Miscellaneous items	.1	.4	.6	1.1
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The Families Studied

THE study of the money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Scranton, Johnstown, and Lancaster forms a part of the Nation-wide survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the purpose of revising and extending its cost-of-living indexes. It covers average expenditures of families of employed workers in the five cities for 1 year within the period December 1933 to May 1935. All the data in Pittsburgh, Scranton, Johnstown, and Lancaster apply to the 12 months from December 1933 through November 1934. In Philadelphia, where field work was continued longer, 54 percent of the data apply to the 12 months from December 1, 1933, through November 30, 1934, and 45 percent to the 12 months from March 1, 1934, through February 28, 1935. The families studied were carefully selected to represent a cross-section of the families of employed white wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in the five cities and of employed Negro wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. All the families included had one or more workers who worked a minimum of 1,008 hours in at least 36 weeks during the year.[4]

[4] An exception was made in the case of families in which the chief earner was employed in an industry distinctly seasonal. Such families were included if the chief earner had employment for 3½ 8-hour days in each of 30 weeks.

Since the data were being obtained primarily for the purpose of providing a basis for indexes of living costs, it was important that they should not reflect the distorted spending of families whose incomes had been abnormally low or irregular. On that account no data were included from families whose incomes were under $500 a year or from families who received relief during the year (table 4).

The number of persons in the families from which complete figures on receipts and disbursements were secured averaged 4.04 in Philadelphia, 3.96 in Pittsburgh, 3.75 in Scranton, 4.19 in Johnstown, and 3.52 in Lancaster for the white families. The Negro families averaged 3.76 persons in Philadelphia and 3.16 in Pittsburgh. These figures compare with a median size for all white families of two persons or more of 3.68 in Philadelphia, 3.76 in Pittsburgh, and 4.11 in Scranton, as shown by the census of 1930. The corresponding census data for Johnstown and Lancaster are not available. For the Negro families, the census figures show a median size for all families of two persons or more, of 3.10 in Philadelphia, and 3.15 in Pittsburgh. The number of workers in these families who were gainfully employed at some time during the year covered by the investigation averaged 1.15 for Negro families in Pittsburgh, the lowest figure for any of the groups in Pennsylvania, and 1.63 for Negro families in Philadelphia, the highest figure. In the year covered by the data secured for the employed families, 10.9 percent of the white families in Philadelphia, and 18.6 percent in Cambria County where Johnstown is located, were on the relief rolls in May 1934, the month in the period covered when relief was at its height. In Allegheny County, which includes Pittsburgh, 18.3 percent of the white families were on relief in February 1934, and in Lackawanna County, where Scranton is situated, 24.5 percent were on relief in August 1934—the respective months for those cities during the period of the investigation when relief was at the peak. In Philadelphia, 54.5 percent of the Negro families were on relief in May 1934. Comparable figures are not available for Negro families in Pittsburgh or white families in Lancaster.

Table 4.—Composition, Income, and Expenditures of Families Studied in 5 Pennsylvania Cities,[1] 1933–35

Item	Philadelphia		Pittsburgh		Scranton	Johnstown area	Lancaster
Population, 1930	1,950,961		669,817		143,433	80,170	59,949
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	White	White
Number of families studied	498	101	346	97	231	153	151
Average number of members in economic family	4.04	3.76	3.96	3.16	3.75	4.19	3.52
Average number of consumption units per family	3.73	3.45	3.61	2.84	3.33	3.90	3.26
Average number of gainful workers per family	1.57	1.63	1.26	1.15	1.21	1.34	1.56
Average income per family	$1,601	$1,203	$1,503	$1,072	$1,402	$1,189	$1,336
Average earnings of chief earner	$1,216	$938	$1,307	$972	$1,261	$1,029	$1,034
Average current expenditure per family	$1,603	$1,182	$1,484	$1,072	$1,413	$1,182	$1,312

[1] The investigation was confined to the territory within the city limits except in the case of Johnstown where families living in the suburbs of Dale, Ferndale, Westmont, Lorain, and Franklin were included.

Household Facilities

THE predominance of the row house in Philadelphia architecture is indicated by the much higher percentage of families, both white and colored, living in dwellings of this type in that city than in any of the other cities included in this article. The smallest percentage of families occupying such dwellings appeared in Scranton, where the one-family detached house is most frequent among home owners, and the two-family house divided horizontally is most frequent among the renters. Among renters in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, proportionately more white families than Negroes enjoyed the combination of the following housing facilities: Inside flush toilet, running hot water inside the dwelling, electric lights, and gas or electricity as kitchen fuel. Among the home owners in these cities, however, the Negroes relatively more frequently than the whites lived in houses providing all of those facilities. Among the Negroes, the home owners consistently had better housing facilities throughout than did the renters. Among the white families in Philadelphia and Johnstown at least as large a proportion of home owners as renters enjoyed each of the facilities listed above, with the single exception that in Philadelphia more renters proportionately had either ice or mechanical refrigeration. In Scranton, home-owning white families have accepted less adequate facilities than renters with respect to each of the following items: Inside flush toilets, running water, mechanical refrigerators. Scranton families had mechanical refrigerators relatively less frequently than white families in other Pennsylvania cities. Indeed, for almost all of the housing facilities listed, the Scranton families were at a lower level than the corresponding families in the other cities. Scranton's location in the heart of the coal-mining district probably accounts for the greater acceptance by home owners than renters of the use of coal as a cooking fuel, and evidently the economic situation in Scranton is such that families are willing to put up with considerably less in the way of conveniences in order to derive the relative security of home ownership.

Table 5.—Household Facilities and Equipment of Renters and Home Owners in 5 Pennsylvania Cities, 1933–35

Equipment	Renters						
	Philadelphia		Pittsburgh		Scranton: White	Johnstown: White	Lancaster: White
	White	Negro	White	Negro			
Number of families	252	84	205	85	176	92	81
Percent of families having—							
1-family detached house	2.0	0	35.1	14.1	16.5	26.1	3.7
1-family semidetached or row house	82.5	80.9	28.7	35.3	18.2	55.4	66.7
2-family house	2.8	2.4	17.6	29.4	42.6	8.7	11.1
Apartment	12.7	16.7	18.6	21.2	22.7	9.8	18.5
Inside flush toilet	95.6	95.2	93.2	90.6	93.2	89.1	95.0
Outside flush toilet	2.4	2.4	2.4	8.2	1.1	2.2	2.5
Other type toilet	2.0	2.4	4.4	1.2	5.7	8.7	2.5

Table 5.—Household Facilities and Equipment of Renters and Home Owners in 5 Pennsylvania Cities, 1933–35—Continued

Equipment	Renters						
	Philadelphia		Pittsburgh		Scranton: White	Johnstown: White	Lancaster: White
	White	Negro	White	Negro			
Percent of families having—Continued.							
Sole use of toilet by household	93.7	81.0	83.4	77.6	92.0	96.7	95.1
Water inside dwelling	99.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.9	98.8
Running	98.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	97.7	98.9	98.8
Hot running	92.1	86.9	76.7	72.9	75.6	72.8	87.7
Water outside dwelling	.8	0	0	0	0	1.1	1.2
Sink	99.6	98.8	100.0	100.0	99.4	98.9	95.1
Electric lights	97.6	95.2	99.5	95.3	99.4	98.9	98.8
Gas or electric kitchen fuel	96.8	77.4	97.1	85.9	64.8	77.2	90.1
Mechanical refrigerator	25.0	3.6	43.0	10.6	14.2	16.3	21.0
Ice refrigerator	73.8	96.4	53.1	89.4	68.2	56.5	74.1
No refrigerator	1.2	0	3.9	0	17.6	27.2	4.9
Hot air, hot water, or steam heat	94.4	85.7	59.5	12.9	63.6	70.7	85.2
Telephone	20.2	3.6	36.1	21.2	19.9	27.7	21.0
Inside flush toilet and running hot water inside dwelling and electric lights and gas or electricity as kitchen fuel	89.3	67.9	74.6	61.2	52.3	69.2	80.2
	Home owners						
Number of families	246	17	141	12	55	61	70
Percent of families having—							
1-family detached house	2.8	0	74.5	50.0	67.2	67.2	7.1
1-family semidetached house or row house	96.0	100.0	17.7	41.7	5.5	32.8	88.6
2-family house	.8	0	6.4	8.3	25.5	0	4.3
Apartment	.4	0	1.4	0	1.8	0	0
Inside flush toilet	98.0	100.0	99.3	100.0	92.7	95.1	98.6
Outside flush toilet	.8	0	0	0	0	0	1.4
Other type toilet	1.2	0	.7	0	7.3	4.9	0
Sole use of toilet by household	99.2	100.0	91.5	100.0	98.2	98.4	98.6
Water inside dwelling	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Running	99.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	92.7	100.0	100.0
Hot running	93.9	100.0	85.1	91.7	70.9	80.3	91.4
Water outside dwelling	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sink	99.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Electric lights	99.6	100.0	98.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.6
Gas or electric kitchen fuel	98.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	69.1	78.7	97.1
Mechanical refrigerator	37.0	17.6	34.0	16.7	9.1	26.2	28.6
Ice refrigerator	61.4	82.4	64.6	83.3	74.5	49.2	71.4
No refrigerator	1.6	0	1.4	0	16.4	24.6	0
Hot air, hot water, or steam heat	96.7	100.0	69.5	58.3	76.4	82.0	94.3
Telephone	30.9	41.2	53.2	58.3	41.8	39.3	51.4
Inside flush toilet and running hot water inside dwelling and electric lights and gas or electricity as kitchen fuel	90.7	100.0	84.4	91.7	54.5	75.4	91.4

Automobiles

As MIGHT be expected from the relative economic level of the two groups studied in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, a larger proportion of white than of colored families owned automobiles. Twenty-three percent of the white families in Philadelphia and 34 percent of those in Pittsburgh owned automobiles. Only 5 percent of the families in Philadelphia and 6 percent in Pittsburgh purchased these cars during the year covered by the study.

While only 13 percent of the Negro families in Philadelphia owned automobiles, 20 percent of the Negro families in Pittsburgh had cars. Four percent of the Negro families in Philadelphia and 9 percent in Pittsburgh purchased cars during the schedule year. These figures

compare with the results shown in the expenditure by the Negro families in Birmingham and Richmond, where 19 percent and 14 percent, respectively, owned automobiles. In Birmingham 4 percent and in Richmond 2 percent purchased cars during the schedule year.

In all the cities covered in Pennsylvania second-hand cars were purchased much more frequently than new cars. Families purchasing new cars were definitely those in the higher expenditure levels.

Table 6.—Ownership of Automobiles by Families at Different Economic Levels, in 5 Pennsylvania Cities, 1933–35

City, and annual expenditure per consumption unit	Number of families	Families owning cars		Families purchasing cars in the year covered					
				New		Second-hand		Total	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Philadelphia—White families:									
Under $300	108	9	8.3	0	-------	1	0.9	1	0.9
$300 and under $400	96	16	16.7	0	-------	2	2.1	2	2.1
$400 and under $500	82	18	22.0	0	-------	1	1.2	1	1.2
$500 and under $600	70	20	28.6	0	-------	3	4.3	3	4.3
$600 and under $700	60	19	31.7	1	1.7	4	6.7	5	8.3
$700 and over	82	33	40.2	4	4.9	7	8.5	11	13.4
Total	498	115	23.1	5	1.0	18	3.6	23	4.6
Philadelphia—Negro families:									
Under $400	55	8	14.5	0	-------	2	3.6	2	3.6
$400 and under $600	31	1	3.2	0	-------	0	-------	0	-------
$600 and over	15	4	26.7	1	6.7	1	6.7	2	13.3
Total	101	13	12.9	1	1.0	3	3.0	4	4.0
Pittsburgh—White families:									
Under $300	75	10	13.3	0	-------	1	1.3	1	1.3
$300 and under $400	76	16	21.1	0	-------	1	1.3	1	1.3
$400 and under $500	65	19	29.2	0	-------	4	6.2	4	6.2
$500 and under $600	54	29	53.7	1	1.9	3	5.6	4	7.4
$600 and under $700	38	18	47.4	1	2.6	3	7.9	4	10.5
$700 and over	38	26	68.4	6	15.8	2	5.3	8	21.1
Total	346	118	34.1	8	2.3	14	4.0	22	6.4
Pittsburgh—Negro families:									
Under $400	49	8	16.3	0	-------	4	9.3	4	9.3
$400 and under $600	35	8	22.9	0	-------	4	11.4	4	11.4
$600 and over	13	3	23.1	0	-------	1	7.8	1	7.8
Total	97	19	19.6	0	-------	9	9.3	9	9.3
Scranton—White families:									
Under $300	38	7	18.4	0	-------	1	2.6	1	2.6
$300 and under $400	58	14	24.1	0	-------	0	-------	0	-------
$400 and under $600	95	26	27.4	0	-------	7	7.4	7	7.4
$600 and over	40	20	50.0	1	2.5	1	2.5	2	5.0
Total	231	67	29.0	1	.4	9	3.9	10	4.3
Johnstown—White families:									
Under $300	66	17	25.8	0	-------	4	6.1	4	6.1
$300 and under $400	46	19	41.3	1	2.2	2	4.3	3	6.5
$400 and under $600	30	13	43.3	2	6.7	1	3.3	3	10.0
$600 and over	11	6	54.5	2	18.2	0	-------	2	18.2
Total	153	55	35.9	5	3.3	7	4.6	12	7.8
Lancaster—White families:									
Under $400	75	22	29.3	0	-------	3	4.0	3	4.0
$400 and under $600	46	20	43.5	0	-------	3	6.5	3	6.5
$600 and over	30	17	56.7	0	-------	3	10.0	3	10.0
Total	151	59	39.1	0	-------	9	6.0	9	6.0

Medical Care

EXPENDITURES for medical care ranged on the average from 2.7 percent of total family expenditures for the Philadelphia Negro group to 4.8 percent for the white families in Johnstown. When the figures presented in table 7 are further subdivided by economic level, progressive increases in average expenditure per family (and per person in economic family) are noted from the lowest to the highest economic level. This finding agrees closely with the results noted for 897 white families in New York City appearing in the Monthly Labor Review for January 1937 (p. 232). When data for families at all economic levels are averaged together, as in table 7, the similarity of dollar averages for detailed items of medical-care expenditure from city to city is quite remarkable. Even when the figures are reduced to an average expenditure per person in the economic family the similarities remain strikingly low as compared with the amount considered adequate by the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care.[5] Thus the average expenditure per family for home visits from the general practitioner ranged from $7.94 for both Philadelphia white and Pittsburgh Negro families to $10.58 for white families in Lancaster. Average expenditure per person in the economic family for home visits from the general practitioner ranged from $1.85 for white families in Johnstown to $3 for white families in Lancaster, as compared with $1.52 in New York City.

Average expenditures for medicine and drugs ranged from $6.64 per white family in Johnstown to $9.76 per Negro family in Philadelphia, with very slight differences noted between colored and white families.

For dental service, there is a marked difference between Negro and white families, Negro families averaging $0.51 per family per year in Philadelphia and $2.02 in Pittsburgh for this item, as against a range among white families of $7.74 per family per year in Johnstown to $11.34 in Scranton. In view of the similarity in expenditures of whites and Negroes for services of general practitioner and drugs and medicines, it is not clear whether this markedly lower dental expenditure indicates that the Negroes in general have better teeth or that they have not yet established the habit of obtaining regular dental service.

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[5] Publications of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care: No. 28, p. 31. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1932.

Table 7.—Annual Expenditure for Medical Care by Families in 5 Pennsylvania Cities, 1933–35

Item	Philadelphia		Pittsburgh		Scranton:	Johnstown:	Lancaster:
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	White	White
Number of families studied	498	101	346	97	231	153	151
Average number of persons per economic family	4.04	3.76	3.96	3.16	3.75	4.19	3.53
Average expenditure per family for—							
Doctors' services:							
General practitioners'—							
Home visits	$7.94	$8.18	$10.04	$7.94	$10.38	$7.98	$10.58
Office visits	7.48	7.80	7.17	3.42	4.93	7.03	5.44
Clinic visits	.61	.62	.25	.11	.13	.26	.14
Dental service	8.41	.51	8.91	2.02	11.34	7.74	8.50
Services other specialists	6.58	.42	10.90	5.36	6.83	9.94	4.58
Nurses' services:							
Private nurse:							
In home	.05	-------	.20	-------	.15	.11	.43
In hospital	.08	-------	.17	-------	.15	.78	.49
Visiting nurse in home	(1)	.15	-------	-------	.11	-------	.36
Hospital services:							
Private room	3.03	.32	5.10	.44	5.03	5.08	2.39
Bed in ward	3.20	.32	2.44	5.26	.50	2.93	3.53
Accident and health insurance	2.20	2.02	1.71	2.75	1.14	3.83	1.83
Medicine and drugs	8.39	9.76	9.11	7.44	8.14	6.64	7.74
Eyeglasses	2.93	1.07	3.22	2.65	3.38	2.82	4.48
Medical appliances	.22	.27	.12	.08	.03	.12	.08
Other goods and services purchased for medical care	.54	.72	1.04	.16	.53	1.42	3.75
Total (average per family)	51.66	32.17	60.38	37.63	52.77	56.68	54.32
Average expenditure per person in economic family for—							
Doctors' services:							
General practitioners'—							
Home visits	1.97	2.18	2.53	2.52	2.77	1.85	3.00
Office visits	1.85	2.07	1.81	1.08	1.31	1.63	1.54
Clinic visits	.15	.17	.06	.04	.04	.06	.04
Dental service	2.08	.13	2.24	.64	3.03	1.80	2.41
Services other specialists	1.63	.11	2.75	1.70	1.82	2.31	1.30
Nurses' services:							
Private nurse:							
In home	.01	-------	.05	-------	.04	.02	.12
In hospital	.02	-------	.04	-------	.04	.18	.14
Visiting nurse in home	(1)	.04	-------	-------	.03	-------	.10
Hospital services:							
Private room	.75	.08	1.29	.14	1.34	1.18	.68
Bed in ward	.79	.35	.62	1.67	.13	.68	1.00
Accident and health insurance	.55	.54	.43	.87	.31	.89	.52
Medicine and drugs	2.08	2.60	2.30	2.36	2.17	1.54	2.20
Eyeglasses	.73	.29	.81	.84	.90	.65	1.27
Medical appliances	.05	.07	.03	.02	.01	.03	.02
Other goods and services purchased for medical care	.13	.19	.26	.05	.14	.33	1.06
Total (average per person in economic family)	12.79	8.82	15.22	11.93	14.08	13.15	15.40

[1] Less than $0.005.

Personal Care

THE effect of the fashion of short hair for women is seen in the magnitude of family expenditures for hair cuts, which ranged from an average of $7.71 for white families in Lancaster to $11.92 for white families in Scranton, and represented the largest single item in personal care. Among Philadelphia white families average expenditures per family of $6 for toilet soaps, and $5 for tooth powders, tooth pastes, and mouth washes represented the second and third largest items in personal care. Hair-dressing and other personal services, for which Philadelphia white families paid an average of $3, and cosmetics and toilet preparations, which claimed another $3, came ahead of shaves, toilet articles such as brushes and combs, and shampoos and manicures in their demands upon the family pocketbook. When the families were classified according to their expenditure per consumption

unit, the average expenditure in dollars for items of personal care increased at the higher expenditure levels, but the total remained consistently at around 2 percent of total family expenditure.

Recreation and Amusements

THE relative stability of the pattern of motion-picture attendance is evidenced by data from Pennsylvania families on their expenditures for "movies" by season. Among the children of the families of wage earners and clerical workers studied in the five cities, the amount reported as spent for movies remained practically the same in each of the spring, summer, fall, and winter seasons and the same was true for adults with the exception of a slight falling off in the summer. Expenditures for reading matter were in excess of expenditures for movies in all groups studied except the white families in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Both these items were in turn surpassed in all cities covered in this State by expenditures for tobacco of various forms, including cigarettes and cigars, which ranged from $19.26 per family among the Negro families in Pittsburgh to $32.40 among the white families in Philadelphia.

Assets and Liabilities

IN EACH of the five Pennsylvania cities studied, for both whites and Negroes, the families studied bettered their financial position, on the average, during the year period. For all families in each white or Negro sample, the sum of the average increase in assets plus average decrease in liabilities was larger than the sum of the average decrease in assets plus average increase in liabilities. The largest difference, both absolutely and relatively, between these two sums, representing the balance of the families' changed position during the year, occurred among the Negro families in Philadelphia. The difference was slight among the Philadelphia, Scranton, and Johnstown white families, was second largest relatively among Lancaster white families, and third largest relatively among Pittsburgh Negro families.

The Negro families in both Philadelphia and Pittsburgh frequently failed to specify the purposes for which they had gone into debt, and in these cities an increase in "other debt" constituted the most frequent form of report from families having spent funds other than income during the year. The second most frequent form of report on use of nonincome funds concerned debts contracted for goods other than automobiles purchased on the installment plan, and the third reduction in savings accounts. Among the white families in each of the five Pennsylvania cities studied, the most frequent form of increase in liabilities or decrease in assets (e. g., funds available for spending other than from current income) was the contraction of debts for goods other than automobiles purchased on installment, with the exception of Philadelphia, where reduction in savings accounts was most frequently resorted to as a means of supplementing

the family income. On the other side of the balance sheet, in all five cities, among both white and Negro families, the most frequent form of increase in assets or decrease in liabilities (e. g., funds spent for purposes other than current living) was payment of life-insurance premiums. With the exception of Philadelphia white families (where the second item was reduction in mortgages on own home), the second most frequent form of disposition of funds other than for current living was payment on installment accounts for goods other than automobiles purchased prior to the year covered in the investigation.

Table 8.—Families Reporting Increase in Assets or Decrease in Liabilities, in 5 Pennsylvania Cities, 1933–35

Item	Philadelphia		Pittsburgh		Scranton:	Johnstown:	Lancaster:
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	White	White
Number of families studied	498	101	346	97	231	153	151
Number of families reporting increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities:							
Increase in family assets:							
Increase in cash:							
On hand	6	-------	8	1	1	2	5
In checking account	6	-------	10	1	2	1	3
In savings account	73	5	34	8	14	11	11
Investment in—							
Improvement in own home	23	1	12	-------	5	10	9
Other real estate including real estate mortgages	-------	1	-------	-------	1	3	2
Building and loan shares	27	-------	13	-------	1	1	13
Stocks and bonds	1	-------	5	-------	-------	3	-------
Other property	(1)	-------	6	-------	-------	-------	1
Insurance policies and annuities:							
Premium payments, life insurance	469	98	328	95	213	129	143
Premium payments, annuities	15	1	7	2	3	1	2
Increase in loans to others	6	2	10	2	4	6	6
Decrease in family liabilities:							
Mortgages on own home	74	14	38	6	12	13	13
Other mortgages	1	-------	2	-------	3	1	-------
Debts payable to banks	-------	-------	4	-------	1	1	-------
Debts payable to insurance companies	2	-------	2	1	2	2	1
Debts payable to small-loan companies	4	2	8	-------	9	11	6
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:							
Automobiles	6	-------	1	-------	1	4	2
Other goods	30	19	41	21	16	30	15
Debts payable to individuals	11	2	10	-------	6	8	4
Other debts	16	6	11	3	4	23	6
Average amount of increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities per family:							
Increase in family assets:							
Increase in cash:							
On hand	$0.85	-------	$1.32	$1.09	$1.09	$0.25	$1.79
In checking account	4.01	-------	2.69	2.18	1.00	1.13	.82
In savings account	24.55	$5.70	13.33	2.92	14.89	13.81	9.81
Investment in—							
Improvement in own home	7.30	.23	4.45	-------	3.51	14.60	10.70
Other real estate including real estate mortgages	-------	2.50	-------	-------	1.09	6.67	2.16
Building and loan shares	6.85	-------	4.61	-------	.29	.09	7.89
Stocks and bonds	.14	-------	2.30	-------	-------	1.19	-------
Other property	-------	-------	.24	-------	-------	-------	1.31
Insurance policies and annuities:							
Premium payments, life insurance	92.99	73.84	104.16	68.52	99.79	72.40	77.33
Premium payments, annuities	2.00	.24	1.10	.82	.36	.34	.60
Increase in loans to others	3.34	.06	3.38	2.00	1.85	2.14	1.85
Total increase in assets	142.79	82.57	137.58	77.53	123.87	112.62	114.26
Decrease in family liabilities:							
Mortgages on own home	35.27	16.23	22.33	12.96	9.97	36.59	12.61
Other mortgages	.16	-------	.73	-------	1.91	.75	-------
Debts payable to banks	-------	-------	.43	-------	.09	.15	-------
Debts payable to insurance companies	.68	-------	.11	.11	.65	.84	.50
Debts payable to small-loan companies	.45	.54	2.04	-------	2.57	6.30	2.95
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:							
Automobiles	2.40	-------	.24	-------	.24	5.42	2.99
Other goods	5.78	10.36	9.54	16.23	4.90	15.29	6.02
Debts payable to individuals	1.89	1.61	3.16	-------	3.43	2.12	1.47
Other debts	5.88	4.98	2.14	.81	1.13	12.57	2.92
Total decrease in family liabilities	52.94	37.72	40.72	30.11	24.89	80.03	29.46

Table 9.—Families Reporting Decrease in Assets or Increase in Liabilities, in 5 Pennsylvania Cities, 1933–35

Item	Philadelphia		Pittsburgh		Scranton: White	Johnstown: White	Lancaster: White
	White	Negro	White	Negro			
Number of families studied	498	101	346	97	231	153	151
Number of families reporting decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities:							
Decrease in family assets:							
Reduction in cash:							
On hand	22	-------	13	3	-------	-------	6
In checking account	8	-------	8	1	1	5	10
In savings account	107	11	61	20	46	13	24
Sale of—							
Real estate, including real estate mortgages	1	-------	3	-------	-------	-------	-------
Building and loan shares	17	-------	7	-------	1	3	2
Stocks and bonds	3	-------	5	-------	-------	3	-------
Goods and chattels	8	-------	14	-------	-------	4	9
Other property	2	-------	5	-------	1	1	2
Insurance policies and annuities:							
Surrender of insurance policy	66	4	27	6	18	6	29
Settlement of life insurance and/or endowment policy	17	-------	10	1	2	5	3
Reduction in outstanding loans to others	11	1	6	1	4	2	3
Increase in family liabilities:							
Mortgage on own home	7	1	9	1	2	4	1
Other mortgages	-------	-------	1	-------	1	-------	-------
Debts payable to banks	2	1	3	-------	2	3	1
Debts payable to insurance companies	17	-------	20	-------	6	8	1
Debts payable to small-loan companies	26	11	10	2	6	8	5
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:							
Automobiles	4	2	8	3	4	5	1
Other goods	104	30	112	37	70	41	37
Debt payable to individuals	42	4	61	17	29	7	14
Other debts	69	39	122	40	63	73	29
Average amount of decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities per family:							
Decrease in family assets:							
Reduction in cash:							
On hand	$7.02	-------	$3.17	$4.04	-------	-------	$4.30
In checking account	10.15	-------	3.53	3.82	$1.77	$3.58	8.07
In savings account	52.74	$14.99	34.95	24.99	50.85	14.97	29.94
Sale of—							
Real estate, including real estate mortgages	2.72	-------	2.95	-------	-------	-------	-------
Building and loan shares	12.05	-------	3.08	-------	.48	4.10	1.43
Stocks and bonds	4.78	-------	1.27	-------	-------	1.69	-------
Goods and chattels	.53	-------	3.84	-------	-------	.56	.75
Other property	.17	-------	1.18	-------	.10	.11	2.70
Insurance policies and annuities:							
Surrender of insurance policy	13.47	4.17	9.81	2.23	9.62	2.88	17.42
Settlement of life insurance and/or endowment policy	16.08	-------	7.65	1.61	12.64	13.54	9.35
Reduction in outstanding loans to others	1.89	.66	1.42	.55	1.43	.58	4.20
Total decrease in family assets	121.60	19.82	72.85	37.24	76.89	42.01	78.25
Increase in family liabilities:							
Mortgage on own home	12.40	7.31	6.16	.68	1.21	35.29	.33
Other mortgages	-------	-------	.12	-------	1.09	-------	-------
Debts payable to banks	.70	.58	.69	-------	1.63	.74	1.29
Debts payable to insurance companies	3.08	-------	5.05	-------	10.41	9.21	.51
Debts payable to small-loan companies	5.20	9.13	3.89	.98	3.69	6.83	2.29
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:							
Automobiles	1.71	6.25	4.77	2.89	2.38	7.89	.09
Other goods	15.44	13.12	25.61	19.79	18.37	18.77	10.91
Debts payable to individuals	12.32	4.17	11.58	4.62	11.89	4.41	8.62
Other debts	16.86	23.96	32.98	31.13	19.07	58.83	16.37
Total increase in liabilities	67.71	64.52	90.85	60.09	69.74	141.97	40.48

Changes in Cost of Living in the United States, March 15, 1937

LIVING costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States averaged 1.7 percent higher on March 15, 1937, than on December 15, 1936.

Each of the six groups of items included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers increased in cost during the quarter ending March 15, 1937. The largest advances occurred in the cost of food and housefurnishing goods.

The March 15 index for the 32 cities combined, based on costs in 1923–25 as 100, was 83.8, as compared with 82.4 on December 15, 1936. Costs on March 15, 1937, were 3.9 percent higher than on April 15, 1936, and 12.5 percent higher than at the low point of June 1933. They were still 15.9 percent below the level of December 1929.

Each of the 32 cities covered by the Bureau reported increases in costs during the quarter ending March 15, 1937. The largest rise, 3.6 percent, was noted in Los Angeles, but three other cities, Birmingham, Portland, Oregon, and Seattle reported advances of as much as 3.0 percent.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of the cost of food, which represents a larger proportion of expenditure than that for any other group of items, was 2.9 percent higher at the end of the quarter than on December 15, 1936. Increases in the price of fresh fruits and vegetables were the most important factors in the advance. Of the 32 cities for which indexes of the cost of all goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are prepared, all but two reported increases in food costs. In those two, Washington, D. C., and Jacksonville, Fla., declines of 0.3 percent were noted. In both of these cities, the lower price of eggs, usual at this season and noted in each of the 32 cities, more than offset the higher cost of fresh fruits and vegetables. The greatest advances in food costs appeared in cities on the Pacific coast. Three of them reported food costs over 7 percent higher on March 15, 1937, than on December 15, 1936—Los Angeles, 9.3 percent, Portland, Oreg., 7.9 percent and Seattle, 7.7 percent. Indexes for Kansas City and Cincinnati also reflect greatly increased food costs during this quarter, 5.6 and 5.2 percent, respectively.

Clothing costs went up in each of the 32 cities. On the average, the rise in the cost of this group of items was 1.7 percent, ranging from 0.4 percent in Portland, Maine, to 3.0 percent in Cleveland and 4.2 percent in Birmingham. Prices of men's and boys' suits, shoes, and shirts, and women's shoes, hose, silk dresses, and slips were higher in most

cities. In Birmingham, the increase was due to a general rise in clothing costs, as well as to a 2 percent State retail sales tax, which went into effect on March 1 of this year.

Rental costs continued the upward movement noted during the last 2 years, with an average increase of 0.7 percent reported for the 32 cities. This increase reflected advances in all but 4 of the 32 cities. Three cities reported increases in rental costs of more than 2 percent—Los Angeles, 4.4 percent, and Birmingham and Cleveland, each 2.2 percent.

Fuel and light costs changed little in most of the cities. The average increase for the 32 cities combined was 0.3 percent. Eighteen cities reported advances, 10 declines, and 4 reported no change. The largest increase—3.0 percent in Cincinnati—was the result of a rise in the cost of bituminous coal. In most of the cities reporting declines, only slight decreases were noted, except in Scranton, where seasonally lowered costs of anthracite and a decline in electricity rates caused the fuel and light index to drop 7.4 percent between December and March.

Housefurnishing goods, which advanced in cost more than any other group, showed an average rise of 4.9 percent in the 32 cities. Every city reported an advance, the rise reaching 7.4 percent in Houston, 7.3 percent in Buffalo, and 7.2 percent in Cincinnati. Increases occurred in the cost of almost all the items covered, but particularly rugs, stoves, and suites of furniture.

Twenty-seven of the thirty-two cities reported advances in the cost of miscellaneous items. Most of the increases were slight, with the largest, 2.9 percent, reported for Jacksonville, where the cost of laundry service, haircuts, and cigars and cigarettes were higher than on December 15.

The cost-of-living indexes presented here show changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from time to time in each of the 32 large cities covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but they do not measure differences in the cost of these goods from city to city. There are serious technical difficulties in determining the cost of the same level of living from one part of the country to another. No satisfactory techniques have been developed for measuring differences in such costs from large to small cities or from cities to rural communities. In large cities with similar climate, comparisons are possible with the use of standard specifications, but such studies, because of their great expense, are beyond the present resources of this Bureau.

In pricing for the Bureau's indexes, the type of goods priced has been varied from city to city in conformity with the purchasing habits

of moderate-income families in each city where prices are secured. Accordingly, although in any one city the kind and quality of goods priced are held constant from year to year insofar as possible, differences between the indexes of the various cities at any particular date are due entirely to differences in the rate of change of living costs in each city. Similarly, the differences in the average costs from which the indexes are computed in different cities may be due to varying standards and purchasing habits in these cities as well as to varying prices for goods of given grades.

Thus, even though these series furnish no information as to differences in absolute cost in dollars among the 32 cities, the indexes for the various cities may be used to indicate comparative rate of change in the cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers. For example, the index of the cost of all items purchased by this group was 78.7 for Birmingham in March 1937, on the 1923–25 base; that for Washington was 87.8. In other words, in March 1937 costs in Birmingham were considerably lower, as compared with 1923–25 costs in that city, than were costs in Washington, as compared with 1923–25 costs in the latter city.

The indexes are constructed by pricing, from time to time, a list of the goods most important in the spending of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, as shown by the Bureau's study of the expenditures of 12,096 families in 1917–19.[1] In the construction of the index, price changes, noted from period to period, are weighted according to the importance of these items in family spending, as shown by that study. A new Nation-wide study, now under way, will provide weights more nearly approximating present-day consumption. The field work for this study is completed, and the data secured are now being tabulated and analyzed.

Pending this basic revision in weights, several important revisions in method have been incorporated in the indexes beginning with the March 15, 1935, period. The food and all-items indexes, as well as the indexes for the 32 cities combined, have been revised back to the base years.[2] The pamphlets containing data for July 15, 1935, and December 15, 1936, together with the current report, present complete revised series.

The prices used in the construction of the food indexes are taken from retail-price quotations secured in 51 cities. Beginning with the year 1935, they cover 84 articles, instead of 42 as in the past. For all goods and services other than food and fuel and light, prices

[1] The results of this study were published in the Bureau's Bull. No. 357.

[2] For details of this revision, see the article which appeared in the September 1935 Monthly Labor Review, Revision of Index of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers.

have been secured in 32 cities. Prices of the items included in the food and fuel and light indexes are obtained by mail, all others by personal visits of representatives of the Bureau.

Changes in Cost of Living, March 1937

PERCENTAGE changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States, December 15, 1936, to March 15, 1937, are shown in table 1.

Table 1.—Percentage Change from Dec. 15, 1936, to Mar. 15, 1937, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	+1.7	[1] +2.9	+1.7	+0.7	+0.3	+4.9	+0.5
New England:							
Boston	+1.0	+1.1	+1.3	[2]	+1.2	+4.5	+1.0
Portland, Maine	+1.0	+2.0	+.4	[2]	[3]	+3.0	+.4
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+1.3	+3.2	+1.6	+.4	−1.5	+7.3	−.7
New York	+1.0	+1.2	+1.4	+.4	[4]	+2.9	+1.0
Philadelphia	+1.0	+1.6	+1.6	+.6	+1.2	+4.9	−.3
Pittsburgh	+1.6	+3.4	+2.0	+.4	+.4	+4.8	−.5
Scranton	+.3	+1.2	+1.2	+.4	−7.4	+5.4	−.6
East North Central:							
Chicago	+1.9	+3.7	+1.3	+.3	+1.1	+3.9	+.8
Cincinnati	+2.8	+5.2	+2.9	+.8	+3.0	+7.2	+.1
Cleveland	+2.0	+2.5	+3.0	+2.2	[3]	+6.0	+.8
Detroit	+2.6	+4.9	+.9	+1.6	+.1	+5.7	+1.5
Indianapolis	+2.4	+4.7	+2.4	+1.0	+.6	+6.6	+.2
West North Central:							
Kansas City	+2.6	+5.6	+2.3	[3]	−.3	+3.5	+1.0
Minneapolis	+2.5	+4.8	+1.4	+.5	−.4	+6.0	+1.8
St. Louis	+2.2	+4.8	+1.4	+.3	+.2	+5.7	+.3
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	+1.4	+2.6	+1.5	+.8	−.1	+3.6	+.2
Baltimore	+.7	+1.5	+.7	+.3	−1.3	+3.7	[4]
Jacksonville	+1.3	−.3	+1.3	+.3	−1.6	+4.1	+2.9
Norfolk	+1.0	+2.1	+1.1	−.2	[3]	+3.5	[4]
Richmond	+.6	+.5	+.7	+.1	+2.3	+3.4	+.1
Savannah	+.9	+.8	+.6	+.4	+2.1	+4.3	+.5
Washington, D. C.	+.3	−.3	+1.2	+.3	−.2	+3.3	+.1
East South Central:							
Birmingham	+3.0	+4.7	+4.2	+2.2	+2.2	+6.7	+.6
Memphis	+1.6	+3.0	+1.8	+.6	+1.0	+5.5	+.3
Mobile	+2.5	+4.7	+2.2	[4]	+1.6	+5.5	+1.1
West South Central:							
Houston	+1.6	+1.9	+1.7	+1.7	[3]	+7.4	+.1
New Orleans	+1.1	+2.3	+1.2	+.1	+.1	+3.5	+.1
Mountain:							
Denver	+2.3	+4.9	+1.1	+.6	[4]	+5.1	+.5
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+3.6	+9.3	+2.0	+4.4	+.4	+5.8	−.4
Portland, Oreg	+3.0	+7.9	+2.7	+.9	[3]	+2.6	+.3
San Francisco	+2.3	+3.8	+2.6	+1.1	−.6	+4.1	+1.0
Seattle	+3.0	+7.7	+2.5	+1.3	[4]	+2.7	+.7

[1] Covers 51 cities.
[2] Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.
[3] No change.
[4] Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from peak points, from the low point June 1933, and from April 15, 1936, to March 15, 1937, in 32 cities are presented in table 2.

Table 2.—Percentage Change in Cost of all Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers for Specified Periods

City	Percentage decrease from—		Percentage increase from—	
	June 1920 to Mar. 15, 1937	Dec. 1929 to Mar. 15, 1937	June 1933 to Mar. 15, 1937	Apr. 15, 1936, to Mar. 15, 1937
Average: 32 large cities	30.9	15.9	12.5	3.9
New England:				
Boston	30.9	16.9	9.9	1.9
Portland, Maine	31.1	13.8	10.1	2.2
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	29.9	16.5	10.8	3.8
New York	28.0	16.1	9.0	2.5
Philadelphia	29.8	16.5	11.3	2.6
Pittsburgh	31.8	18.1	12.2	3.9
Scranton	30.9	17.3	10.8	2.7
East North Central:				
Chicago	31.6	19.8	13.1	4.9
Cincinnati	29.5	15.1	13.2	5.0
Cleveland	29.1	12.6	13.8	4.6
Detroit	36.2	16.5	23.2	5.0
Indianapolis	34.5	15.2	14.4	5.4
West North Central:				
Kansas City	35.6	12.8	11.5	5.8
Minneapolis	29.2	12.3	16.3	6.1
St. Louis	32.0	16.6	12.8	4.1
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	37.0	15.4	15.5	4.3
Baltimore	28.0	13.5	11.9	2.3
Jacksonville	34.4	15.2	14.3	3.8
Norfolk	33.8	13.9	14.0	3.3
Richmond	31.3	12.3	14.3	4.4
Savannah	36.8	17.2	9.6	3.0
Washington, D. C	28.4	11.3	12.4	2.7
East South Central:				
Birmingham	37.9	18.1	17.1	6.5
Memphis	33.0	14.4	13.2	4.4
Mobile	33.9	17.2	12.4	3.9
West South Central:				
Houston	32.6	15.6	16.2	4.7
New Orleans	28.4	15.1	11.4	3.9
Mountain:				
Denver	32.1	12.0	14.2	4.8
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	28.1	15.1	14.3	6.8
Portland, Oreg	33.4	11.3	16.9	5.2
San Francisco	26.7	13.5	10.3	3.4
Seattle	30.6	12.4	11.7	5.0

Indexes of Cost of Living, by Cities

INDEXES of the average cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are constructed, for each of the 32 cities surveyed, and for these cities combined, using an average of the years 1923–25 as the base. These indexes from 1913 through March 15, 1937, are shown in table 3. The accompanying chart presents these data in graphic form.

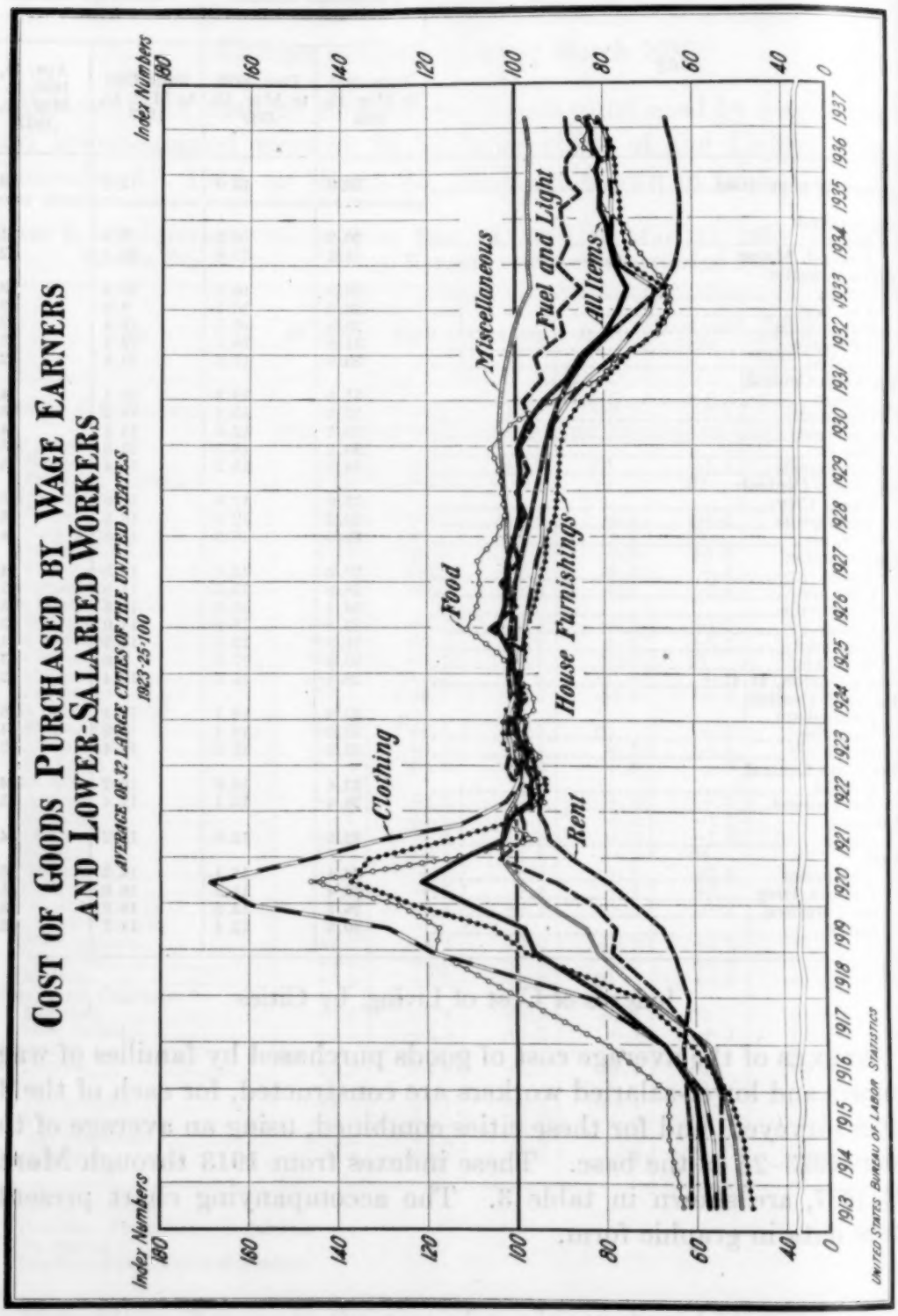
COST OF GOODS PURCHASED BY WAGE EARNERS AND LOWER-SALARIED WORKERS
AVERAGE OF 32 LARGE CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
40
0
Clothing
Food
Miscellaneous
Fuel and Light
All Items
House Furnishings
Rent
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Table 3.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 through Mar. 15, 1937

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	All items	Food [1]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1913—Average	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914—December	58.9	66.3	56.3	61.4	54.5	49.6	51.6
1915—December	60.1	66.3	58.3	62.3	54.5	52.8	53.9
1916—December	66.9	79.5	66.9	62.8	58.5	61.0	56.8
1917—December	79.4	99.1	83.1	61.5	66.9	71.8	70.4
1918—December	95.8	118.2	118.9	64.7	78.7	97.8	81.9
1919—June	98.2	117.3	128.8	67.3	77.8	104.0	84.3
December	109.8	126.4	159.5	73.1	82.6	123.0	92.9
1920—June	121.2	146.1	168.6	79.4	91.3	137.0	99.2
December	112.2	115.7	151.0	87.5	103.7	132.8	103.2
1921—May	102.8	95.8	129.8	92.7	98.4	114.3	103.2
September	101.7	102.1	112.2	93.3	98.2	103.2	102.5
December	100.3	99.7	107.2	94.8	99.1	100.4	102.0
1922—March	96.8	93.5	102.4	94.6	96.3	95.0	100.4
June	97.0	95.6	100.4	95.0	95.9	93.2	99.5
September	96.4	93.3	99.3	95.2	100.9	93.4	99.2
December	97.7	96.7	99.4	95.8	102.2	96.3	98.9
1923—March	97.6	94.6	100.8	96.3	101.5	100.7	99.0
June	98.6	97.2	101.1	97.3	98.7	102.8	99.1
September	100.1	100.6	101.9	98.2	99.8	102.9	99.6
December	100.2	99.5	101.8	99.7	101.1	102.9	100.0
1924—March	99.0	95.9	101.5	100.2	99.9	102.1	99.7
June	98.9	96.0	100.6	101.3	97.6	99.4	99.8
September	99.2	97.3	99.5	101.4	98.9	98.6	99.8
December	100.0	99.5	98.9	101.7	99.5	99.1	100.2
1925—June	101.4	104.2	98.5	101.4	97.9	97.9	100.8
December	104.0	111.1	97.9	101.3	105.8	97.8	101.1
1926—June	102.5	108.9	97.1	100.4	100.0	95.8	101.0
December	102.3	108.1	96.2	100.0	103.4	94.7	101.4
1927—June	101.9	108.7	95.3	99.0	99.4	93.4	101.7
December	100.4	104.7	94.0	97.9	100.6	93.0	102.1
1928—June	99.2	102.5	93.8	96.5	97.7	91.1	102.1
December	99.4	103.2	93.3	95.5	99.7	90.5	102.8
1929—June	99.1	103.7	92.8	94.3	97.0	90.2	103.0
December	99.6	105.7	92.2	93.3	99.1	89.9	103.4
1930—June	97.7	101.2	91.5	92.0	95.9	88.8	103.7
December	93.8	92.1	88.1	90.1	98.1	85.1	103.4
1931—June	88.3	80.6	83.4	87.3	93.7	79.3	102.8
December	85.1	76.2	77.6	83.9	95.3	74.9	101.8
1932—June	79.7	67.6	73.5	78.5	88.8	68.4	100.4
December	76.6	64.7	69.5	72.7	89.8	65.6	98.8
1933—June	74.5	64.9	68.4	66.8	84.9	65.8	96.4
December	77.2	69.6	76.2	63.9	90.0	73.5	96.8
1934—June	78.4	73.4	77.9	62.7	87.7	75.0	96.6
Nov. 15	79.1	75.3	77.8	62.7	89.0	75.5	96.7
1935—Mar. 15	80.6	79.8	78.0	62.6	89.3	76.0	96.8
July 15	80.4	80.2	77.8	62.7	84.9	76.2	96.7
Oct. 15	80.7	80.2	78.0	63.3	87.7	77.0	96.6
1936—Jan. 15	81.3	81.6	78.3	63.5	88.3	77.0	96.6
Apr. 15	80.6	79.4	78.6	63.7	88.0	77.3	96.5
July 15	82.0	84.0	78.4	64.2	86.1	77.5	96.4
Sept. 15	82.4	84.3	78.6	64.6	87.4	78.2	96.5
Dec. 15	82.4	82.9	79.6	65.4	87.8	79.2	96.8
1937—Mar. 15	83.8	85.4	81.0	65.9	88.1	83.1	97.3

[1] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

The indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show relative costs as of particular dates. For various purposes, however, it is often necessary to have estimates of annual average indexes. These estimates are, therefore, presented in table 4, for 32 cities combined, from 1914 through 1936. The annual average in-

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921

dexes have been computed as follows: The annual average food index is an average of the indexes falling within each year; the annual average indexes for clothing, rent, fuel and light, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous items are indexes of the weighted average of the aggregates for each pricing period affecting the year, the weights representing the relative importance of each pricing period. When these goods were priced only twice a year, in June and again in December, it is evident that prices in December of the previous year were more indicative of prices in the next month, January, even though it fell in a new year, than were the prices of the succeeding June. Therefore, cost in December of the preceding year and of June and December of the given year are all considered in arriving at an average cost for the year. The relative importance of each of these prices is expressed for December of the previous year by 2½; for June of the given year by 6; and for December of the given year by 3½. In computing the annual average for the year 1936, when indexes were computed at five dates, the weights are as follows: October 15, 1935, weight 1; periods in 1936, weight January 15, 47; April 15, 72; July 15, 60; September 15, 60; December 15, 47; and March 15, 1937, weight 1. Weights for years in which pricing was done at other intervals will be furnished on request.

Table 4.—Estimated [1] Annual Average Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1914 Through 1936

[Average 1923-25=100]

Year	All items	Food [2]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1914	58.5	65.3	56.1	61.4	54.3	49.0	51.2
1915	59.5	66.3	57.4	61.9	54.5	51.3	52.8
1916	63.8	73.4	62.9	62.6	56.6	57.2	55.5
1917	73.7	90.1	75.6	62.1	63.0	66.9	64.2
1918	88.2	109.4	102.5	63.2	73.3	85.9	76.7
1919	101.1	120.2	135.7	68.4	79.4	108.2	86.3
1920	116.2	133.1	161.6	80.4	93.1	132.8	99.1
1921	103.6	101.6	124.4	92.4	99.3	111.8	102.8
1922	97.2	95.0	101.0	95.1	98.6	94.8	99.7
1923	99.0	97.9	101.2	97.5	100.3	101.8	99.3
1924	99.2	96.9	100.4	101.0	99.1	100.1	99.9
1925	101.8	105.0	98.4	101.5	100.6	98.1	100.8
1926	102.6	108.5	97.0	100.5	102.2	95.9	101.1
1927	100.6	104.5	95.1	98.9	100.6	93.6	101.7
1928	99.5	103.3	93.7	96.5	98.9	91.3	102.3
1929	99.5	104.7	92.7	94.3	98.2	90.2	103.1
1930	97.0	99.6	90.7	91.7	97.2	87.9	103.5
1931	88.6	82.0	82.7	86.9	95.1	79.2	102.7
1932	79.8	68.3	73.2	78.0	90.4	68.9	100.2
1933	75.8	66.4	70.9	67.2	87.4	68.0	97.0
1934	78.6	74.0	77.5	62.9	88.6	74.9	96.7
1935	80.7	80.4	77.9	62.9	87.5	76.4	96.7
1936	81.6	82.1	78.7	64.2	87.5	77.8	96.5

[1] For explanation of method used, see above.
[2] Covers 51 cities since 1921.

Table 5 presents March 15, 1937, indexes of living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers based on average costs in the years 1923–25 as 100, for each of the 32 cities, by groups of items.

Table 5.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, Mar. 15, 1937

[Average 1923–25=100]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	83.8	[1] 85.4	81.0	65.9	88.1	83.1	97.3
New England:							
Boston	84.2	79.3	85.5	75.5	86.9	82.2	98.9
Portland, Maine	86.6	83.3	81.2	76.2	86.3	88.2	103.3
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	84.9	84.2	79.9	68.1	98.3	89.5	98.8
New York	85.1	84.3	81.2	75.6	88.6	78.1	97.8
Philadelphia	83.4	87.3	75.9	66.8	84.7	80.9	95.2
Pittsburgh	82.1	83.8	79.3	62.3	100.6	81.7	95.9
Scranton	84.0	82.0	82.4	73.1	75.1	89.6	97.1
East North Central:							
Chicago	80.0	87.7	74.4	52.5	93.2	74.8	100.4
Cincinnati	88.6	89.6	81.1	75.6	99.9	93.7	97.4
Cleveland	85.5	83.9	84.5	65.0	100.6	[2] 81.1	102.9
Detroit	80.9	85.9	80.2	63.1	78.9	83.1	93.1
Indianapolis	83.5	87.9	79.0	62.1	84.6	88.5	92.8
West North Central:							
Kansas City	84.1	90.2	79.9	60.1	81.2	78.0	98.1
Minneapolis	86.8	95.6	79.1	66.6	92.0	87.4	96.7
St. Louis	84.7	91.9	80.1	56.3	87.4	88.7	100.5
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	82.4	82.1	83.6	62.1	75.3	89.9	94.0
Baltimore	87.0	88.0	80.1	72.6	84.5	81.3	104.3
Jacksonville	81.5	80.4	81.7	58.1	89.3	82.7	92.9
Norfolk	86.5	85.4	87.2	62.5	82.7	86.3	103.8
Richmond	86.5	82.4	86.7	70.9	83.6	92.6	99.7
Savannah	81.8	83.6	83.9	60.5	83.7	87.3	91.7
Washington, D. C	87.8	85.0	80.8	87.7	84.3	85.7	98.0
East South Central:							
Birmingham	78.7	78.8	86.6	52.1	83.0	81.5	91.6
Memphis	82.8	[3] 84.0	86.4	58.1	88.9	91.7	95.1
Mobile	84.2	81.3	88.9	64.0	71.9	89.3	97.0
West South Central:							
Houston	83.2	83.4	75.9	70.6	75.9	90.9	94.7
New Orleans	84.0	86.3	79.7	71.0	[4] 77.6	89.8	91.6
Mountain:							
Denver	85.0	93.9	77.8	61.3	75.3	88.4	97.3
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	79.8	83.4	84.2	51.8	82.4	82.7	92.0
Portland, Oreg	85.0	88.5	81.9	58.5	88.4	82.7	99.1
San Francisco	86.8	86.4	89.9	71.1	79.8	84.7	98.6
Seattle	87.3	88.9	87.3	66.0	92.6	89.9	97.5

[1] Covers 51 cities.
[2] Cleveland housefurnishing goods index for Dec. 15, 1936, corrected from 76.1 to 76.5.
[3] Memphis food index for Dec. 15, 1936, corrected from 81.5 to 81.6
[4] New Orleans fuel and light index for Dec. 15, 1936, corrected from 77.0 to 77.6.

Table 6 presents indexes of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of the 32 cities, for each date from June 1926 through March 15, 1937, on the 1923–25 base. It is planned to publish these indexes for each group of items in each December report, and to publish only the indexes of the cost of all goods in the March, June, and September reports. If indexes by groups of items are needed for any one of the 32 cities, the Bureau of Labor Statistics will be glad to furnish them.

Table 6.—Indexes of Cost of all Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Cities, June 1926 Through Mar. 15, 1937

[Average 1923–25=100]

Date	New England		Middle Atlantic					East North Central
	Boston	Portland, Maine	Buffalo	New York	Philadelphia	Pittsburgh	Scranton	Chicago
1926—June	102.5	102.0	104.6	102.4	104.8	103.6	104.1	102.9
December	103.5	101.8	103.7	102.7	104.5	103.2	103.8	102.9
1927—June	101.9	101.7	103.3	101.8	103.3	103.0	103.5	102.6
December	102.2	100.4	101.7	102.5	102.2	101.3	102.4	100.2
1928—June	99.5	98.9	101.5	100.3	101.0	99.9	101.7	99.0
December	100.9	100.0	101.0	101.1	99.6	101.0	101.9	99.3
1929—June	99.6	99.7	101.3	100.7	99.2	100.8	101.4	98.9
December	101.4	100.4	101.7	101.5	99.9	100.2	101.6	99.7
1930—June	98.7	98.4	100.3	98.8	97.6	98.6	99.0	97.8
December	95.9	95.4	95.6	96.5	94.3	93.8	95.2	93.5
1931—June	89.4	90.9	90.0	91.2	89.7	88.4	88.7	88.0
December	87.2	88.1	85.7	88.1	86.3	84.7	85.5	84.4
1932—June	80.5	83.5	82.3	84.2	80.4	78.7	80.1	77.1
December	78.6	79.9	78.4	81.0	76.8	76.0	78.0	73.4
1933—June	76.6	78.6	76.6	78.1	74.9	73.2	75.8	70.7
December	79.7	82.5	78.8	80.5	78.4	76.0	80.0	72.4
1934—June	81.3	83.6	80.2	81.8	79.9	77.7	80.8	72.7
Nov. 15	82.0	84.4	79.9	82.1	79.6	77.8	80.6	73.5
1935—Mar. 15	82.9	84.6	81.6	83.6	80.4	79.2	81.9	76.2
July 15	82.7	85.2	82.0	83.1	80.4	79.1	82.1	76.0
Oct. 15	82.9	85.0	81.6	83.4	80.9	79.6	82.8	76.1
1936—Jan. 15	83.0	85.3	82.5	84.2	81.9	79.9	83.2	76.7
Apr. 15	82.6	84.7	81.8	83.0	81.3	79.1	81.8	76.2
July 15	84.2	86.5	84.1	83.8	82.1	80.7	83.2	77.6
Sept. 15	83.5	85.7	83.3	84.4	82.1	80.8	83.2	78.4
Dec. 15	83.3	85.8	83.8	84.3	82.5	80.8	83.7	78.5
1937—Mar. 15	84.2	86.6	84.9	85.1	83.4	82.1	84.0	80.0

Date	East North Central—Continued				West North Central			South Atlantic
	Cincinnati	Cleveland	Detroit	Indianapolis	Kansas City	Minneapolis	St. Louis	Atlanta
1926—June	105.4	102.6	101.4	101.9	101.5	102.5	104.2	102.7
December	104.6	101.8	100.4	101.2	99.6	100.9	103.7	100.9
1927—June	106.5	102.0	100.6	102.3	99.5	101.1	104.1	103.1
December	102.3	99.4	97.5	98.4	96.1	98.2	100.8	98.1
1928—June	102.8	99.2	96.2	98.0	96.2	98.5	100.2	99.0
December	102.0	98.1	96.3	97.4	95.6	97.6	99.8	98.7
1929—June	103.4	98.6	97.1	97.4	95.5	97.9	100.8	97.6
December	104.4	97.8	96.9	98.4	96.5	99.0	101.6	97.4
1930—June	103.0	97.8	94.6	97.1	95.1	98.0	99.5	94.0
December	98.8	93.3	88.3	91.9	92.6	94.0	94.7	89.9
1931—June	92.8	87.3	82.4	85.3	88.9	89.6	88.5	84.4
December	89.3	84.3	77.2	81.7	85.1	86.6	84.0	79.8
1932—June	82.9	80.5	71.6	77.0	79.0	80.9	79.5	75.9
December	79.7	76.4	67.9	73.9	76.9	78.2	76.4	71.9
1933—June	78.3	75.2	65.7	73.0	75.5	74.6	75.1	71.3
December	80.5	77.2	69.1	75.5	76.7	78.2	77.0	74.7
1934—June	81.7	78.6	71.5	77.0	77.9	79.2	78.7	75.8
Nov. 15	82.2	78.8	71.9	76.5	79.2	79.6	79.4	77.1
1935—Mar. 15	85.1	81.3	74.2	78.9	80.4	81.3	81.4	78.4
July 15	84.0	81.4	75.1	78.8	79.5	81.5	81.6	78.3
Oct. 15	84.5	81.5	75.9	79.1	80.1	81.3	81.2	79.6
1936—Jan. 15	85.2	81.7	76.7	79.8	80.2	82.6	82.1	79.9
Apr. 15	84.3	81.7	77.0	79.2	79.6	81.8	81.4	79.0
July 15	87.2	83.4	78.9	81.4	81.9	83.9	82.8	80.6
Sept. 15	87.4	84.3	79.0	81.8	82.9	84.5	83.8	81.5
Dec. 15	86.2	83.8	78.8	81.5	82.0	84.7	82.9	81.3
1937—Mar. 15	88.6	85.5	80.9	83.5	84.1	86.8	84.7	82.4

Table 6.—Indexes of Cost of all Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Cities, June 1926 Through Mar. 15, 1937—Continued

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	South Atlantic—Continued						East South Central	
	Baltimore	Jacksonville	Norfolk	Richmond	Savannah	Washington, D. C.	Birmingham	Memphis
1926—June	103.4	109.0	101.7	104.7	102.4	103.2	103.0	100.8
December	102.5	107.7	101.4	102.9	101.6	102.5	102.1	100.0
1927—June	102.1	104.8	102.3	103.0	101.1	100.5	100.7	99.9
December	100.1	102.0	100.3	99.7	100.0	99.5	100.0	97.1
1928—June	100.1	98.7	99.6	100.0	99.2	99.1	98.2	96.5
December	99.1	98.2	99.9	98.5	99.8	98.6	97.5	97.0
1929—June	99.7	97.2	99.7	97.7	99.0	99.0	96.9	97.1
December	100.5	96.1	100.6	98.6	98.9	98.9	96.1	96.7
1930—June	99.5	94.1	98.8	98.1	96.9	97.4	94.2	96.0
December	95.8	90.6	95.4	93.5	93.2	94.7	89.3	91.3
1931—June	90.8	85.4	89.8	88.2	89.3	89.6	80.7	85.3
December	87.9	81.2	86.2	85.6	84.3	87.0	76.9	82.1
1932—June	82.7	76.3	81.2	80.3	79.1	82.0	70.9	77.0
December	79.9	73.5	78.7	77.1	76.7	79.1	68.5	73.8
1933—June	77.7	71.3	75.9	75.7	74.6	78.1	67.2	73.1
December	81.4	75.5	80.9	79.9	78.3	81.8	70.2	76.1
1934—June	82.6	76.6	82.5	80.9	78.9	83.0	71.0	77.0
Nov. 15	82.9	77.2	82.9	81.7	79.4	83.9	73.4	78.8
1935—Mar. 15	83.9	77.8	83.9	82.9	80.0	85.3	73.6	79.5
July 15	84.5	78.6	83.5	82.7	80.3	85.6	74.1	78.6
Oct. 15	84.9	78.9	84.1	83.6	81.2	86.3	75.3	78.7
1936—Jan. 15	85.6	79.4	84.9	83.6	81.2	86.7	75.0	79.4
Apr. 15	85.0	78.5	83.7	82.8	79.4	85.5	73.9	79.3
July 15	86.0	80.2	84.8	84.3	80.7	87.0	76.0	80.5
Sept. 15	86.4	80.1	85.2	85.5	81.0	87.4	76.5	81.1
Dec. 15	86.4	80.4	85.7	86.0	81.1	87.6	76.4	81.5
1937—Mar. 15	87.0	81.5	86.5	86.5	81.8	87.8	78.7	82.8

Date	East South Central—Contd.	West South Central		Mountain	Pacific			
	Mobile	Houston	New Orleans	Denver	Los Angeles	Portland, Oreg.	San Francisco	Seattle
1926—June	103.8	99.9	100.0	101.2	96.7	99.4	101.1	101.2
December	104.0	100.4	101.0	100.2	96.9	99.1	101.3	100.6
1927—June	103.6	98.3	101.2	100.7	97.0	98.9	101.5	101.6
December	102.4	98.6	99.9	96.4	95.5	97.3	100.6	98.8
1928—June	101.4	96.7	98.8	95.9	93.2	95.7	99.6	98.4
December	101.8	97.6	99.6	96.3	95.1	96.3	100.9	98.6
1929—June	101.0	97.4	98.3	96.6	94.1	95.1	100.1	99.2
December	101.6	98.6	98.9	96.7	94.0	95.8	100.4	99.6
1930—June	99.9	96.1	96.7	95.5	91.7	95.0	98.3	98.8
December	95.5	91.3	92.6	91.1	88.1	89.6	95.0	93.4
1931—June	88.9	86.0	85.1	86.5	82.4	85.5	89.8	90.4
December	85.3	83.4	84.5	82.9	80.7	82.9	86.9	87.3
1932—June	79.1	76.2	79.3	78.2	75.5	77.4	82.4	82.0
December	77.0	72.2	77.6	75.5	73.1	75.2	80.7	78.6
1933—June	74.9	71.6	75.4	74.5	69.8	72.7	78.7	78.1
December	79.2	75.5	79.1	76.1	72.5	74.4	81.8	79.2
1934—June	79.1	75.8	79.1	77.8	72.1	75.5	82.5	79.6
Nov. 15	81.0	78.3	81.0	79.0	74.2	77.5	84.5	80.9
1935—Mar. 15	82.2	79.3	82.0	81.2	75.5	78.8	84.8	82.2
July 15	81.7	78.3	81.9	81.2	74.6	78.8	83.2	82.3
Oct. 15	82.1	79.4	81.4	80.8	74.8	79.3	84.0	82.2
1936—Jan. 15	81.7	80.3	81.7	81.5	75.4	80.7	84.5	83.6
Apr. 15	81.0	79.5	80.8	81.1	74.7	80.8	84.0	83.2
July 15	82.7	80.9	82.2	83.0	75.2	82.0	84.5	84.1
Sept. 15	82.2	81.5	82.6	83.4	76.3	81.9	84.8	84.5
Dec. 15	82.1	81.9	83.0	83.1	77.1	82.5	84.9	84.8
1937—Mar. 15	84.2	83.2	84.0	85.0	79.8	85.0	86.8	87.3

Indexes on 1913 Base for the 32 Cities Combined

INDEXES of the average cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 cities combined, from December 1914 through March 15, 1937, are presented in table 7. The indexes presented in this table are based on average costs in 1913 as 100, to provide comparability with figures presented in earlier pamphlets.

Table 7.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, December 1914 Through Mar. 15, 1937

[1913=100]

Date	All items	Food [1]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1914—December	102.7	105.0	101.0	100.0	101.0	104.0	103.0
1915—December	104.7	105.0	104.7	101.5	101.0	110.6	107.4
1916—December	116.6	126.0	120.0	102.3	108.4	127.8	113.3
1917—December	138.3	157.0	149.1	100.1	124.1	150.6	140.5
1918—December	166.9	187.3	213.4	105.3	146.0	205.0	163.3
1919—June	171.1	185.9	231.1	109.6	144.2	218.0	168.0
December	191.4	200.4	286.3	119.0	153.1	257.8	185.4
1920—June	211.3	231.6	302.6	129.2	169.3	287.2	197.8
December	195.6	183.3	271.1	142.5	192.2	278.3	205.8
1921—May	179.1	151.8	233.0	151.0	182.4	239.7	205.8
September	177.2	161.7	201.3	151.9	182.0	216.3	204.4
December	174.9	157.9	192.5	154.4	183.8	210.5	203.4
1922—March	168.8	148.1	183.8	154.1	178.6	199.1	200.1
June	169.0	151.5	180.3	154.6	177.7	195.5	198.4
September	168.0	147.9	178.2	154.9	187.1	195.8	197.9
December	170.3	153.2	178.4	156.0	189.5	201.8	197.3
1923—March	170.0	149.9	181.0	156.8	188.1	211.0	197.5
June	171.8	154.0	181.4	158.4	182.9	215.5	197.6
September	174.5	159.4	182.9	159.9	185.0	215.7	198.6
December	174.7	157.7	182.8	162.3	187.4	215.6	199.4
1924—March	172.5	151.9	182.2	163.2	185.2	214.0	198.9
June	172.3	152.1	180.6	164.9	181.0	208.4	199.1
September	172.9	154.1	178.7	165.1	183.3	206.7	199.1
December	174.3	157.7	177.5	165.6	184.5	207.7	199.8
1925—June	176.7	165.1	176.9	165.1	181.6	205.2	201.1
December	181.3	176.1	175.8	165.0	196.2	205.0	201.6
1926—June	178.7	172.6	174.2	163.5	185.4	200.9	201.5
December	178.3	171.3	172.7	162.8	191.6	198.6	202.1
1927—June	177.7	172.2	171.0	161.1	184.3	195.8	202.8
December	175.0	165.8	168.7	159.4	186.6	195.0	203.7
1928—June	172.8	162.4	168.4	157.2	181.2	191.0	203.6
December	173.2	163.6	167.4	155.5	184.9	189.8	205.0
1929—June	172.7	164.3	166.6	153.5	179.8	189.1	205.4
December	173.7	167.5	165.6	151.9	183.8	188.4	206.1
1930—June	170.3	160.4	164.3	149.8	177.8	186.1	206.8
December	163.6	145.9	158.1	146.7	181.8	178.4	206.3
1931—June	153.9	127.7	149.7	142.1	173.8	166.2	205.0
December	148.3	120.8	139.3	136.6	176.6	156.9	203.1
1932—June	138.9	107.2	131.9	127.8	164.6	143.4	200.2
December	133.5	102.6	124.7	118.4	166.5	137.5	197.1
1933—June	129.8	102.8	122.8	108.7	157.4	137.8	192.3
December	134.6	110.3	136.7	104.0	166.9	154.1	193.0
1934—June	136.6	116.3	139.8	102.1	162.5	157.2	192.7
Nov. 15	137.8	119.4	139.7	102.0	165.1	158.3	192.9
1935—Mar. 15	140.4	126.4	139.9	101.8	165.5	159.4	193.1
July 15	140.1	127.1	139.6	102.1	157.4	159.8	192.8
Oct. 15	140.7	127.1	140.1	103.1	162.6	161.4	192.6
1936—Jan. 15	141.7	129.4	140.5	103.3	163.8	161.4	192.6
Apr. 15	140.6	125.8	141.0	103.7	163.1	162.0	192.5
July 15	143.0	133.1	140.7	104.5	159.6	162.3	192.2
Sept. 15	143.6	133.7	141.1	105.2	162.0	163.8	192.4
Dec. 15	143.6	131.4	142.9	106.5	[2] 162.8	[2] 166.0	193.0
1937—Mar. 15	146.0	135.3	145.3	107.3	163.3	174.2	194.0

[1] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

[2] Corrected figure.

Changes in Living Costs From December 1914 and December 1917

DATA on changes in living costs from December 1914 for 19 cities and from December 1917 for the other 13 cities, to each subsequent pricing date through December 15, 1936, were presented in the reports on Changes in Cost of Living, July 15, 1935 (Serial No. R. 258), and December 15, 1936 (Serial No. R. 510). For the convenience of those who wish to use these series, brought up to date, the two following tables present changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from December 1914 for 19 cities and from December 1917 for the other 13 cities, to March 15, 1937. Complete series are therefore available for all cities by reference to the July 15, 1935, and December 15, 1936, reports, together with the current report. The data can, of course, be converted into index numbers on the December 1914 base for 19 cities and on the December 1917 base for the other cities by adding 100 to each figure representing an increase and by subtracting from 100 each figure representing a decrease.

Table 8.—Changes in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 19 Large Cities, December 1914 to Mar. 15, 1937

City	Percentage increase or decrease over December 1914 in the cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
New England:							
Boston	+40.7	+19.5	+63.0	+11.9	+68.9	+98.1	+86.5
Portland, Maine	+43.4	+31.0	+42.7	−2.4	+70.3	+100.0	+94.1
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+53.5	+33.8	+45.3	+18.7	+114.4	+98.9	+100.5
New York	+51.3	+30.7	+62.0	+24.2	+73.3	+73.0	+110.0
Philadelphia	+46.7	+30.2	+41.0	+13.1	+64.4	+64.9	+103.7
East North Central:							
Chicago	+42.4	+39.5	+26.8	+4.7	+46.7	+68.3	+91.1
Cleveland	+55.3	+28.5	+48.4	+14.8	+146.2	+77.2	+117.6
Detroit	+50.5	+34.2	+44.4	+26.9	+46.5	+65.9	+109.8
South Atlantic:							
Baltimore	+54.3	+39.5	+43.3	+24.3	+60.4	+84.0	+116.0
Jacksonville	+37.4	+15.9	+62.7	−21.1	+53.1	+94.7	+84.1
Norfolk	+49.3	+22.8	+54.6	+2.8	+66.1	+72.4	+110.9
Savannah	+27.5	+5.3	+49.6	−12.4	+35.8	+101.6	+63.0
Washington, D. C	+40.0	+32.3	+43.5	+19.2	+23.2	+92.0	+71.1
East South Central:							
Mobile	+37.2	+21.3	+36.0	−9.4	+37.8	+86.3	+87.5
West South Central:							
Houston	+39.7	+29.5	+50.6	−4.5	+8.9	+122.8	+79.8
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+43.4	+23.6	+52.5	+.1	+17.5	+99.9	+88.5
Portland, Oreg	+34.5	+29.4	+30.7	−16.8	+42.1	+68.9	+73.7
San Francisco	+38.9	+28.0	+72.1	−2.5	+20.2	+82.0	+73.6
Seattle	+48.8	+30.1	+53.3	+7.9	+46.8	+117.8	+89.8

Table 9.—Changes in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 13 Large Cities, December 1917 to Mar. 15, 1937

City	Percentage increase or decrease over December 1917 in the cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Middle Atlantic:							
Pittsburgh	+2.8	−16.8	−10.4	+4.3	+82.9	+5.1	+39.5
Scranton	+7.9	−14.2	+.3	+20.3	+30.3	+19.8	+48.7
East North Central:							
Cincinnati	+6.8	−11.6	−14.9	+11.1	+52.7	+15.8	+44.4
Indianapolis	+2.5	−13.2	−12.3	−9.7	+22.9	+8.0	+40.2
West North Central:							
Kansas City	−.9	−14.0	−9.7	−10.2	+9.5	−7.7	+32.6
Minneapolis	+4.6	−2.4	−15.2	−4.0	+32.1	+9.1	+27.3
St. Louis	+4.4	−9.6	−13.2	+1.7	+12.1	+13.5	+36.3
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	−4.6	−22.3	−11.8	−1.6	+3.1	+8.9	+26.0
Richmond	+2.0	−19.5	−3.9	−1.1	+27.4	+28.3	+35.1
East South Central:							
Birmingham	−7.6	−22.8	−11.6	−13.1	+18.9	−5.4	+16.8
Memphis	+2.2	−19.3	−6.5	−1.5	+46.3	+10.5	+30.8
West South Central:							
New Orleans	+2.1	−17.1	−6.3	+11.3	+4.4	+16.9	+36.5
Mountain:							
Denver	+5.6	−6.3	−9.9	+13.2	−2.6	+10.6	+32.6

The indexes of living costs presented in this pamphlet can be converted to other bases. If indexes for any one of the 32 cities or for the cities combined, on bases other than those presented in this pamphlet, are desired, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., will prepare them.

Cost of Living in the United States and Certain Foreign Countries

THE trend of cost of living in the United States and certain foreign countries for March, July, and October 1935; January, April, July, September, and December 1936; and March 1937 is shown in the following table. In cases where data for March 1937 are not available, the latest information is given and the month noted. The number of countries included varies according to the available information.

A general index and indexes for the individual groups of items are presented for all countries shown with the exception of Australia, Ireland, the Netherlands, Peru, South Africa, and Yugoslavia. Four countries publish a general index and an index for food only.

Caution should be observed in the use of the figures because of differences in the base periods, in the number and kind of articles included, and the number of localities represented. There are also radical differences in the method of the construction and calculation of the indexes.

The table shows the trend in the general cost of living and for the groups of food, clothing, fuel and light, and rent for the countries for which such information is published in original sources.

Table 10.—Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries

Country	United States	Australia (30 towns)	Austria, Vienna	Belgium	Canada	China, Shanghai	Czechoslovakia, Prague	Estonia, Tallin
Commodities included	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, housefurnishing goods, miscellaneous (revised)	Food, clothing, rent, miscellaneous (in general index)	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries [1]	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, miscellaneous	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries [2]	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, etc.
Computing agency	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Bureau of Census and Statistics	Federal Statistical Bureau	Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare	Dominion Bureau of Statistics	National Tariff Commission	Office of Statistics	Bureau of Statistics
Base period	1923–25 =100	1923–27 =1,000	July 1914=100	1921=100	1926=100	1926=100	July 1914=100	1913=100
General:								
1935—March	80.6	[3] 824	104	164.7	78.8	104.8	83.3	87
July	80.4	[3] 836	105	174.8	78.8	105.2	86.5	87
October	80.7	[3] 838	106	185.5	80.3	103.9	85.5	93
1936—January	81.3	[3] 838	106	187.4	80.5	111.0	86.1	94
April	80.6	[3] 841	104	183.4	[4] 79.6	111.7	86.2	97
July	82.0	[3] 854	104	179.6	80.4	112.2	86.1	99
September	82.4	[3] 854	105	187.5	[4] 81.1	113.5	85.7	100
December	82.4	[3] 860	105	194.1	[4] 81.7	117.5	[5] 72.1	101
1937—March	----------	----------	104	----------	82.0	116.8	----------	103
Food:								
1935—March	79.8	795	98	130.8	69.5	85.7	76.7	76
July	80.2	812	102	143.8	69.3	90.3	83.5	76
October	80.2	827	103	159.5	72.4	86.3	81.4	83
1936—January	81.6	812	102	161.4	73.9	93.3	82.1	84
April	79.4	815	98	155.3	71.0	97.9	82.1	87
July	84.0	825	100	149.0	72.6	99.8	82.2	91
September	84.3	842	101	160.2	75.1	102.3	81.3	91
December	82.9	854	101	169.0	75.3	106.8	[5] 67.7	92
1937—March	85.4	----------	99	----------	75.7	104.9	----------	97
Clothing:								
1935—March	78.0	----------	157	206.6	70.3	80.7	82.0	128
July	77.8	----------	157	214.1	69.9	77.9	83.0	131
October	78.0	----------	157	215.1	71.6	77.6	83.2	135
1936—January	78.3	----------	157	217.4	70.6	84.0	83.2	135
April	78.6	----------	157	218.2	[4] 70.2	84.3	83.7	135
July	78.4	----------	157	219.2	[4] 70.7	85.3	83.7	135
September	78.6	----------	157	220.7	[4] 70.6	84.3	83.7	135
December	79.6	----------	157	222.9	[4] 71.6	100.7	[5] 73.9	135
1937—March	81.0	----------	160	----------	72.6	100.7	----------	135
Fuel and light:								
1935—March	89.3	----------	109	149.8	88.7	123.3	96.2	54
July	84.9	----------	109	155.0	84.7	101.8	93.7	56
October	87.7	----------	109	154.1	86.5	116.3	94.7	65
1936—January	88.3	----------	109	160.0	87.2	137.6	94.5	73
April	88.0	----------	109	158.3	87.3	132.5	94.5	79
July	86.1	----------	108	161.9	85.8	127.4	92.0	76
September	87.4	----------	108	164.5	86.1	126.8	93.4	75
December	87.8	----------	108	169.6	86.7	127.0	[5] 78.3	75
1937—March	88.1	----------	108	----------	86.6	128.7	----------	75
Rent:								
1935—March	62.6	----------	31	389.8	80.3	111.4	45.7	112
July	62.7	----------	31	391.6	81.4	111.4	45.7	112
October	63.3	----------	31	392.0	82.6	111.0	45.7	116
1936—January	63.5	----------	33	391.9	82.6	111.0	45.7	116
April	63.7	----------	33	392.1	82.6	110.3	45.7	115
July	64.2	----------	33	392.6	83.8	109.6	45.7	115
September	64.6	----------	33	392.9	83.8	109.6	45.7	125
December	65.4	----------	33	394.0	84.9	109.0	[5] 38.4	125
1937—March	65.9	----------	33	----------	84.9	109.1	----------	125

[1] In schillings.
[2] Gold.
[3] Quarter.
[4] Corrected figure.
[5] New gold parity.

Table 10.—Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries—Continued

Country	Finland	France, Paris	Germany	Hungary, Budapest	India, Bombay	Ireland	Italy, Milan	Netherlands, The Hague
Commodities included	Food, clothing, fuel, light, rent, taxes, etc.	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, all commodities
Computing agency	Ministry of Social Affairs	Commission for study of cost of living	Federal Statistical Bureau	Central Office of Statistics	Labor Industry	Department Industry and Commerce	Municipal Administration	Bureau of Statistics
Base period	January–June 1914=100	January–June 1914=100	1913–14=100	1913=100	July 1914=100	July 1914=100	January–June 1914=100	1921=100
General:								
1935—March	979.0	[3] 494	122.2	89.4	98	[3] 153	422.9	[3] 66.2
July	996.0	[3] 469	124.3	92.8	101	[3] 156	430.3	[3] 65.2
October	1,021.3	[3] 478	122.8	93.0	103	[3] 162	[4] 434.1	[3] 65.8
1936—January	992.4	[3] 486	124.3	95.0	103	[3] 159	----------	[3] 65.5
April	989.0	[3] 497	124.3	96.4	100	[3] 157	----------	[3] 64.8
July	988.4	[3] 504	125.3	95.1	101	[3] 159	----------	[3] 64.7
September	1,004.3	[3] 504	124.4	97.0	102	[3] 159	----------	[3] 64.7
December	1,017.9	[3] 540	124.3	97.7	102	[3] 166	----------	65.3
1937—March	----------	----------	125.0	----------	104	[3] 167	----------	----------
Food:								
1935—March	884.6	[3] 494	118.8	78.2	89	[3] 136	389.8	[3] 56.4
July	908.9	[3] 466	122.9	84.7	93	[3] 140	397.4	[3] 54.4
October	947.1	[3] 481	119.6	84.2	94	[3] 150	[4] 403.9	[3] 55.9
1936—January	904.2	[3] 495	122.3	85.8	96	[3] 145	----------	[3] 55.4
April	891.2	[3] 514	122.4	88.5	92	[3] 141	----------	[3] 55.1
July	891.7	[3] 525	124.0	85.8	93	[3] 145	----------	[3] 54.6
September	906.4	[3] 525	122.0	88.0	94	[3] 145	----------	[3] 54.6
December	919.4	[3] 562	121.0	88.5	95	[3] 155	----------	54.9
1937—March	----------	----------	122.3	----------	96	[3] 153	----------	----------
Clothing:								
1935—March	956.7	[3] 490	117.2	101.7	114	----------	331.4	----------
July	956.3	[3] 490	117.8	101.7	112	----------	352.5	----------
October	959.4	[3] 483	114.4	103.6	112	----------	[4] 352.5	----------
1936—January	962.0	[3] 483	118.5	114.0	113	----------	----------	----------
April	964.4	[3] 483	118.7	114.6	111	----------	----------	----------
July	961.9	[3] 483	119.9	115.0	111	----------	----------	----------
September	963.1	[3] 483	121.0	121.2	111	----------	----------	----------
December	962.9	----------	124.2	123.9	111	----------	----------	----------
1937—March	----------	----------	124.5	----------	111	----------	----------	----------
Fuel and light:								
1935—March	922.3	[3] 592	127.6	133.1	136	----------	382.9	----------
July	913.4	[3] 533	124.6	132.7	136	----------	384.4	----------
October	938.6	[3] 551	126.8	134.6	136	----------	[4] 384.4	----------
1936—January	990.9	[3] 548	127.1	133.3	128	----------	----------	----------
April	1,083.6	[3] 530	126.3	133.1	126	----------	----------	----------
July	1,060.8	[3] 547	124.5	133.3	126	----------	----------	----------
September	1,093.9	[3] 547	125.5	133.5	126	----------	----------	----------
December	1,148.5	----------	126.8	134.4	126	----------	----------	----------
1937—March	----------	----------	126.6	----------	128	----------	----------	----------
Rent:								
1935—March	1,082.6	[3] 400	121.2	86.3	158	----------	431.1	----------
July	1,101.2	[3] 363	121.3	86.3	158	----------	431.1	----------
October	1,101.2	[3] 363	121.3	86.3	158	----------	[4] 431.1	----------
1936—January	1,101.2	[3] 363	121.3	86.3	158	----------	----------	----------
April	1,101.2	[3] 363	121.3	86.3	158	----------	----------	----------
July	1,101.2	[3] 363	121.3	86.3	158	----------	----------	----------
September	1,140.0	[3] 363	121.3	86.3	158	----------	----------	----------
December	1,140.0	----------	121.3	86.3	158	----------	----------	----------
1937—March	----------	----------	121.3	----------	158	----------	----------	----------

[3] Quarter.
[4] September (none since).

Table 10.—Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries—Continued

Country	New Zealand	Norway	Peru, Lima	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	Yugoslavia, Beograd
Commodities included	Food, clothing, fuel, light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel, light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, rent, sundries	Food, fuel, light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, taxation, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel, light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel, light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light
Computing agency	Census and Statistics Office	Central Statistical Office	Office of Investigations	Office of Census and Statistics	Board of Social Welfare	Federal Labor Office	Ministry of Labor	National Bank
Base period	1926–30=1,000	July 1914=100	1913=100	1914=1,000	July 1914=100	June 1914=100	July 1914=100	1926=100
General:								
1935—March	[7] 826	149	152	1,157	[3] 155	127	141	70.7
July	[8] 836	151	152	1,156	[3] 156	128	143	68.0
October	[9] 853	153	153	1,146	[3] 157	129	145	69.9
1936—January	[7] 840	153	157	1,157	[3] 158	130	147	71.1
April	[10] 856	155	158	1,161	[3] 158	130	144	70.4
July	[8] 870	155	160	1,157	[3] 158	130	146	67.8
September	[8] 870	155	161	1,153	[11] 157	130	147	68.8
December	[9] 884	157	162	1,162	[12] 158	132	151	70.1
1937—March	[7] 900	161	----------	[7] 1,164	[13] 161	136	151	----------
Food:								
1935—March	819	135	148	1,024	[3] 126	112	122	72.6
July	826	140	147	1,019	[3] 129	115	126	71.0
October	875	142	147	998	[3] 131	117	128	72.5
1936—January	841	142	154	1,016	[3] 132	118	131	73.6
April	845	145	155	1,024	[3] 134	119	126	73.0
July	875	145	157	1,011	[3] 134	120	129	70.8
September	899	143	159	1,002	[11] 132	121	131	72.0
December	914	145	159	1,000	[13] 133	123	136	73.4
1937—March	[7] 916	152	----------	[7] 1,004	[13] 137	129	135	----------
Clothing:								
1935—March	[7] 831	144	167	----------	[3] 167	115	188	73.7
July	[8] 829	143	170	----------	[3] 167	114	188	71.2
October	[9] 825	145	173	----------	[3] 167	112	185	70.7
1936—January	[7] 823	[3] 146	173	----------	[3] 168	112	185	72.1
April	[10] 828	[3] 146	173	----------	[3] 169	111	188	72.1
July	[8] 843	[3] 147	176	----------	[3] 169	111	190	71.8
September	[8] 843	[3] 147	176	----------	[11] 169	111	190	70.6
December	[9] 854	[3] 148	176	----------	[12] 170	111	190	72.1
1937—March	[7] 884	[3] 153	----------	----------	[13] 174	118	195	----------
Fuel and light:								
1935—March	[7] 837	138	----------	----------	[3] 137	115	173	73.2
July	[8] 874	139	----------	----------	[3] 137	113	168	71.4
October	[9] 876	141	----------	----------	[3] 138	113	170	71.5
1936—January	[7] 874	143	----------	----------	[3] 138	113	175	71.2
April	[10] 875	145	----------	----------	[3] 140	113	178	71.2
July	[8] 898	147	----------	----------	[3] 139	112	173	68.7
September	[8] 898	155	----------	----------	[11] 140	111	173	69.2
December	[9] 926	160	----------	----------	[12] 141	114	175	69.2
1937—March	[7] 929	165	----------	----------	[13] 143	116	178	----------
Rent:								
1935—March	[7] 766	166	153	----------	[3] 201	182	156	----------
July	[8] 776	166	153	----------	[3] 198	180	158	----------
October	[9] 783	166	156	----------	[3] 198	180	158	----------
1936—January	[7] 789	[3] 167	156	----------	[3] 198	180	158	----------
April	[10] 800	[3] 167	161	----------	[3] 196	180	158	----------
July	[8] 812	[3] 170	161	----------	[3] 196	177	159	----------
September	[8] 812	[3] 170	161	----------	[11] 196	177	159	----------
December	[9] 816	[3] 170	161	----------	[12] 196	177	159	----------
1937—March	[7] 820	[3] 171	----------	----------	[13] 195	177	159	----------

[3] Quarter.
[7] February.
[8] August.
[9] November.
[10] May.
[11] Quarter ending October.
[13] Quarter ending January 1937.
[13] Quarter ending April.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR

Annual Earnings of Employees in the Iron and Steel Industry, 1934 [1]

THE average annual earnings of all employees in the iron and steel industry whose work periods extended over 52 weeks in 1934 amounted to $1,124. Those whose work was spread over 40 or more weeks averaged $1,045. These averages may be compared with the $948 average for all employees who worked any part of 1934.[2] The figures cover both male and female wage earners, as well as office employees in the plants. They refer to earnings of individuals in particular establishments and do not include possible earnings from other sources during the periods in which the individual was not employed in the establishment surveyed. The basic data from which these averages were computed were obtained in connection with the latest biennial survey of earnings and hours in this industry in March 1935.

Nature of Data

THE earnings and hours survey included 92,626 employees, but data on annual earnings were reported for 52,043, or approximately 56 percent of the total coverage. The annual-earnings sample was smaller than that of the main survey mainly because: (1) Certain large firms did not furnish data on annual earnings; (2) the resources of the Bureau did not permit compilation of this information for a few important establishments whose records did not summarize the figures for the year; and (3) some of the smaller firms did not have available records from which the annual data could be secured. Despite these limitations, the Bureau obtained yearly figures from a representative sample not only of large plants but also of medium-size and smaller establishments, and the annual-earnings data may be considered fairly typical for the country as a whole.

The 1934 annual earnings were secured only for those employees who were actually working during March 1935—the period covered by the earnings and hours data. This procedure gives somewhat

[1] Prepared by Edward K. Frazier, of the Bureau's Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions. This article is the seventh of a series on the iron and steel industry. The first four dealt with average hourly earnings and weekly earnings and hours in March 1935, by departments. The fifth presented similar figures for the industry as a whole, while the sixth covered important facts concerning Negro workers. These articles will be found in the April, June, July, August, and September 1936 and March 1937 issues, respectively, of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] The work of these employees was distributed over periods averaging 46.5 weeks during the year.

greater weight to the more stable part of the labor force than would have been the case if the data had been secured for each employee who had worked any part of 1934.[3]

The annual-earnings data collected in the survey covered the total amount received and the number of pay-roll periods worked during the calendar year 1934. It should be remembered, however, that these figures are subject to the following limitations: (1) They include only the earnings and employment within a given establishment; they do not include the earnings and employment the worker may have obtained from other firms during that year. (2) The number of pay-roll periods reported for the year does not indicate the number of days or hours worked. A man who worked in each of 52 weeks did not necessarily have full time in each week. The number of pay-roll periods in which work was done does show the extent to which the work was distributed over the year, thereby permitting classification of the employees according to the degree of regularity of their work in the plant. But the majority of the establishments had a pay-roll period of either 2 weeks or a half month, and for the sake of uniformity, such pay-roll periods were converted to a weekly basis. This procedure assumes that an employee obtained some work in each week of each pay-roll period reported, and this accounts in part for the high averages of the number of weeks computed. (3) In terms of production, employment, and pay rolls, the year 1934 was considerably better than either 1932 or 1933. It was, however, below 1935 and 1936 in these respects. Considering all factors, the year 1934 was below normal as regards total employment and pay rolls, and this should be borne in mind in reading data presented here.

Earnings of Male Wage Earners in the Industry as a Whole

AMONG the 50,402 male wage earners for whom annual data were obtained, there were 26,305 whose work periods in 1934 extended over 52 weeks. These employees earned an average of $1,118.

[3] The method used here was employed for two reasons: (1) It made it possible, if desired, to link the annual-earnings data with the earnings and hours data; (2) it saved considerable time that otherwise would have been consumed in copying the annual data for the other employees who worked in 1934.

The extent of the coverage of the employees under this method may be estimated from the monthly index numbers of employment in the iron and steel industry for this period reported by the Division of Employment and Pay Rolls of the Bureau. These index numbers are as follows:

1934					
January	77.9	June	94.8	December	80.2
February	80.7	July	86.8	*1935*	
March	84.0	August	83.5	January	83.2
April	87.4	September	78.3	February	87.4
May	92.0	October	78.4	March	88.7
		November	79.0		

The lowest index number during the entire period was 77.9 in January 1934, which may be looked upon as representing, more or less, the stable part of the labor force. This index number, however, climbed to 94.8 in June 1934, after which it declined to 78.3 in September of that year, being followed by another rise to 88.7 in March 1935. Thus, it may be said that the workers for whom annual data were obtained in this survey included not only the more or less stable part of the labor force but also those employed during part of 1934 who had been reemployed by March 1935.

Those whose work was spread over periods of 40 or more weeks numbered 42,193, and their yearly earnings averaged $1,039. For all male wage earners who worked any part of 1934 the average earnings were $942.[4]

While the average annual earnings figure is highly important, it is more essential to consider the amounts received by individual workers. According to the distribution in table 1, which relates to employees who worked in pay-roll periods extending over 52 weeks, one-half of 1 percent received less than $400, 6.1 percent less than $600, 23.9 percent less than $800, and 48.1 percent less than $1,000. In the remainder of the distribution, 51.9 percent earned $1,000 or more, 32.6 percent $1,200 or more, 19.4 percent $1,400 or more, 11.8 percent $1,600 or more, 4.9 percent $2,000 or more, and 2.2 percent $2,400 or more.

Taking those employees whose work in 1934 was spread over 40 or more weeks, the distribution in the same table shows that 1.7 percent earned under $400, 11.4 percent under $600, 32.5 percent under $800, and 56.0 percent under $1,000. In the remaining part of the distribution, 44.0 percent were paid $1,000 and over, 26.7 percent $1,200 and over, 15.7 percent $1,400 and over, 9.6 percent $1,600 and over, 4.0 percent $2,000 and over, and 1.8 percent $2,400 and over.

As regards all employees who worked any part of 1934, it was found that 2.5 percent were paid under $200, 8.9 percent under $400, 22.3 percent under $600, 42.4 percent under $800, and 62.7 percent under $1,000. On the other hand, among the 37.3 percent earning $1,000 and over, 22.6 percent received $1,200 and over, 13.3 percent $1,400 and over, 8.1 percent $1,600 and over, 3.4 percent $2,000 and over, and only 1.5 percent $2,400 and over.

The distribution of employees according to the number of weeks over which work was performed serves to distinguish between those who worked relatively short periods during the year and the more or less regular forces in the plants covered. The proportion of employees who secured some work throughout the 52 weeks in the year amounted to 52.3 percent, as compared with 83.8 percent employed over periods of 40 or more weeks. Those employees obtaining work over periods of less than 40 weeks (approximately 9 months) constituted 16.2 percent of all workers. The employees whose work extended over periods of less than 26 weeks (6 months) amounted to 5.1 percent.

[4] This sum was earned as a result of work performed over periods averaging 46.4 weeks.

Table 1.—Distribution of Male Wage Earners in Iron and Steel Industry According to Annual Earnings and Number of Weeks Over Which Work was Distributed, 1934

Number of weeks over which work was distributed	Male wage earners whose annual earnings were—							
	Under $200	$200 and under $400	$400 and under $600	$600 and under $800	$800 and under $1,000	$1,000 and under $1,200	$1,200 and under $1,400	$1,400 and under $1,600
Under 4 weeks	163							
4 and under 8 weeks	212	1	2					
8 and under 12 weeks	311	63	1	2				
12 and under 16 weeks	242	211	5	1				
16 and under 20 weeks	83	234	32	1	2		1	
20 and under 24 weeks	125	386	129	17		1		
24 and under 28 weeks	83	463	294	44	15	2	2	2
24 and under 26 weeks	41	228	127	14	5	1	1	1
26 and under 28 weeks	42	235	167	30	10	1	1	1
28 and under 32 weeks	45	454	586	170	36	8	3	1
32 and under 36 weeks	9	429	821	331	75	14	4	3
36 and under 40 weeks	4	302	798	621	181	74	39	14
40 and under 44 weeks	2	210	830	894	447	186	70	27
44 and under 48 weeks	2	101	562	890	655	298	134	52
48 and under 52 weeks	2	233	1,256	2,449	2,429	1,762	943	518
52 weeks	2	154	1,460	4,681	6,348	5,075	3,487	2,003
Total employees	1,285	3,241	6,776	10,101	10,188	7,420	4,683	2,620
Simple percentage	2.5	6.4	13.4	20.1	20.3	14.7	9.3	5.2
Cumulative percentage	2.5	8.9	22.3	42.4	62.7	77.4	86.7	91.9

Number of weeks over which work was distributed	Male wage earners whose annual earnings were—					Total employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
	$1,600 and under $1,800	$1,800 and under $2,000	$2,000 and under $2,200	$2,200 and under $2,400	$2,400 and over			
Under 4 weeks						163	0.3	0.3
4 and under 8 weeks						215	.4	.7
8 and under 12 weeks						377	.7	1.4
12 and under 16 weeks						459	.9	2.3
16 and under 20 weeks	1					354	.7	3.0
20 and under 24 weeks						658	1.3	4.3
24 and under 28 weeks	6	2	4	3	3	923	1.8	6.1
24 and under 26 weeks	2			1		421	.8	5.1
26 and under 28 weeks	4	2	4	2	3	502	1.0	6.1
28 and under 32 weeks		1	1	1		1,306	2.6	8.7
32 and under 36 weeks	1	2				1,689	3.4	12.1
36 and under 40 weeks	9	13	4	5	1	2,065	4.1	16.2
40 and under 44 weeks	11	11	6	7	11	2,712	5.4	21.6
44 and under 48 weeks	27	20	12	11	10	2,774	5.5	27.1
48 and under 52 weeks	313	162	120	66	149	10,402	20.6	47.7
52 weeks	1,116	692	395	303	589	26,305	52.3	100.0
Total employees	1,484	903	542	396	763	50,402		
Simple percentage	2.9	1.8	1.1	0.8	1.5			
Cumulative percentage	94.8	96.6	97.7	98.5	100.0			

Earnings of Male Wage Earners, by Districts [5]

THERE was not much difference in the average annual earnings in the Eastern and Southern districts among those employees whose work was spread over 52 weeks, as the earnings amounted to $1,043 in the former region as compared with $1,063 in the latter. On the other hand, the corresponding figures in the Pittsburgh and the Great

[5] See the Monthly Labor Review, March 1937 (p. 564), for the geographical limits of the districts used here.

Lakes and Middle West regions were somewhat higher, being respectively $1,123 and $1,177. These two averages are also quite close, showing a differential of only $54. Taking the district averages of employees whose work was spread over 40 weeks and above, the lowest figure, namely $976, again appeared in the Eastern region. In the remaining areas, however, the averages were more nearly alike, the figures being $1,044 in the Pittsburgh, $1,057 in the Southern, and $1,070 in the Great Lakes and Middle West districts. When all male wage earners who worked any part of 1934 are included, the average in the Eastern district is $893, in the Southern district $923, in the Pittsburgh district $956, and in the Great Lakes and Middle West district $962.[6] Here the differential between the highest and the lowest average is also small, amounting to only $69.

Likewise, little variation is found among the district distributions of individual workers according to annual earnings, as may be seen in table 2. In each case, somewhat less than two-thirds of the employees earned under $1,000, the actual percentages amounting to 65.9 in the Eastern, 62.9 in the Southern, 63.1 in the Pittsburgh, and 60.1 in the Great Lakes and Middle West regions. The number earning $1,600 and over amounted to 5.5 percent in the Eastern, 9.7 percent in the Southern, 8.5 percent in the Pittsburgh, and 8.7 percent in the Great Lakes and Middle West districts.

Table 2.—Distribution of Male Wage Earners in the Iron and Steel Industry According to Annual Earnings, by District, 1934

Annual earnings	Employees in Eastern district			Employees in Pittsburgh district			Employees in Great Lakes and Middle West district			Employees in Southern district		
	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under $200	216	2.2	2.2	509	2.5	2.5	284	2.6	2.6	176	3.6	3.6
$200 and under $400	720	7.2	9.4	1,124	5.4	7.9	925	6.2	8.8	472	9.8	13.4
$400 and under $600	1,512	15.1	24.5	2,498	12.1	20.0	1,973	13.3	22.1	793	16.4	29.8
$600 and under $800	2,137	21.2	45.7	4,402	21.3	41.3	2,791	18.8	40.9	771	16.0	45.8
$800 and under $1,000	2,020	20.2	65.9	4,502	21.8	63.1	2,843	19.2	60.1	823	17.1	62.9
$1,000 and under $1,200	1,500	15.0	80.9	2,786	13.4	76.5	2,452	16.5	76.6	682	14.1	77.0
$1,200 and under $1,400	968	9.7	90.6	2,014	9.7	86.2	1,285	8.7	85.3	416	8.6	85.6
$1,400 and under $1,600	391	3.9	94.5	1,109	5.3	91.5	893	6.0	91.3	227	4.7	90.3
$1,600 and under $1,800	193	1.9	96.4	651	3.1	94.6	503	3.4	94.7	137	2.8	93.1
$1,800 and under $2,000	116	1.2	97.6	403	1.9	96.5	247	1.7	96.4	137	2.8	95.9
$2,000 and under $2,200	84	.8	98.4	231	1.1	97.6	161	1.1	97.5	66	1.4	97.3
$2,200 and under $2,400	68	.7	99.1	180	.9	98.5	109	.7	98.2	39	.8	98.1
$2,400 and over	92	.9	100.0	320	1.5	100.0	260	1.8	100.0	91	1.9	100.0
Total	10,017	100.0	.....	20,729	100.0	.....	14,826	100.0	.....	4,830	100.0	.....

Even less variation appeared in the average number of weeks over which the work was distributed during the year, which amounted to

[6] The same order appeared in the average hourly earnings for March 1935, the figures being 62.7 cents in the Eastern, 64.0 cents in the Southern, 69.1 cents in the Pittsburgh, and 69.9 cents in the Great Lakes and Middle West districts.

46.8 in the Eastern, 44.5 in the Southern, 47.5 in the Pittsburgh, and 45.3 in the Great Lakes and Middle West districts.

With regard to those who secured work for periods extending over 52 weeks, there was, however, a considerable difference, the percentages being 51.9 in the Eastern, 28.3 in the Southern, 61.7 in the Pittsburgh, and 46.8 in the Great Lakes and Middle West districts. The percentage of employees in each district whose work was distributed over periods of 40 or more weeks shows a much narrower range, the lowest being 77.2 in the Southern district and the highest 85.7 in the Pittsburgh area. These may be compared with similar percentages of 81.9 in the Great Lakes and Middle West and 84.9 in the Eastern districts. The remaining employees who secured some work over periods of less than 40 weeks amounted to 14.3 percent in the Pittsburgh territory, 15.1 percent in the Eastern district, 18.1 percent in the Great Lakes and Middle West region, and 22.8 percent in the Southern area.

Earnings of Male Wage Earners, by Industry Division

TABLE 3 shows data for the three general divisions of the industry; namely, blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.

Employees in blast furnaces and rolling mills whose work was distributed over periods of 52 weeks earned approximately the same average annual amount, the figures being, respectively, $1,068 and $1,092. Those in these divisions whose work was spread over periods of 40 or more weeks averaged $1,030 in blast furnaces and $1,007 in rolling mills. The average yearly earnings for all employees in blast furnaces in 1934 was $939, as against $914 in rolling mills.[7] In the steel-works division, where there is a higher percentage of skilled workers, the average annual earnings of employees whose work was distributed over 52 weeks amounted to $1,232. Those in this division whose work was spread over 40 or more weeks averaged $1,179. The latter average is $119 greater than that of $1,060 for all employees in steel works.[7]

[7] The district averages in each of these divisions were as follows:

Item	Eastern district	Pittsburgh district	Great Lakes and Middle West district	Southern district
Blast furnaces:				
52 weeks	$970	$1,007	$1,217	$917
40 weeks and over	934	973	1,166	926
All employees	846	899	1,067	821
Rolling mills:				
52 weeks	1,018	1,119	1,095	1,100
40 weeks and over	955	1,037	988	1,035
All employees	875	954	888	898
Steel works:				
52 weeks	1,177	1,185	1,321	1,191
40 weeks and over	1,111	1,099	1,283	1,319
All employees	1,013	985	1,150	1,199

There is not much difference between the blast-furnace and rolling-mills divisions in the distribution of employees according to annual earnings. In blast furnaces, according to table 3, 19.3 percent of the workers received less than $600, and 62.0 percent less than $1,000. Among the 38.0 percent earning $1,000 and over, 11.6 percent received $1,400 and over, 3.9 percent $1,800 and over, and only 2.7 percent $2,000 and over. In the rolling-mills division, 23.7 percent were paid less than $600, and 65.2 percent under $1,000. As regards the 34.8 percent earning $1,000 and over, 11.6 percent were paid $1,400 and over, 4.5 percent $1,800 and over, and only 2.8 percent $2,000 and over.

Among steel-works employees, 18.7 percent had annual earnings of less than $600, and 53.1 percent under $1,000. Of the 46.9 percent paid $1,000 and over, which is a much larger percentage than found in either blast furnaces or rolling mills, 20.8 percent earned $1,400 and over, 8.4 percent $1,800 and over, and 5.9 percent $2,000 and over.

Table 3.—Distribution of Male Wage Earners in Iron and Steel Industry According to Annual Earnings, by Industry Division, 1934

Annual earnings	Employees in blast furnaces			Employees in steel works			Employees in rolling mills		
	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under $200	80	1.8	1.8	243	2.7	2.7	962	2.6	2.6
$200 and under $400	208	4.8	6.6	438	4.9	7.6	2,595	7.0	9.6
$400 and under $600	554	12.7	19.3	1,002	11.1	18.7	5,220	14.1	23.7
$600 and under $800	959	22.0	41.3	1,488	16.5	35.2	7,654	20.7	44.4
$800 and under $1,000	898	20.7	62.0	1,601	17.9	53.1	7,689	20.8	65.2
$1,000 and under $1,200	737	17.0	79.0	1,347	15.0	68.1	5,336	14.4	79.6
$1,200 and under $1,400	410	9.4	88.4	999	11.1	79.2	3,274	8.8	88.4
$1,400 and under $1,600	220	5.1	93.5	646	7.2	86.4	1,754	4.7	93.1
$1,600 and under $1,800	114	2.6	96.1	467	5.2	91.6	903	2.4	95.5
$1,800 and under $2,000	53	1.2	97.3	229	2.5	94.1	621	1.7	97.2
$2,000 and under $2,200	43	1.0	98.3	157	1.7	95.8	342	.9	98.1
$2,200 and under $2,400	21	.5	98.8	116	1.3	97.1	259	.7	98.8
$2,400 and over	51	1.2	100.0	261	2.9	100.0	451	1.2	100.0
Total	4,348	100.0		8,994	100.0		37,060	100.0	

The average time over which the work was distributed in 1934 amounted to 47.4 weeks in blast furnaces, 46.8 weeks in steel works and 46.2 weeks in rolling mills.[8] The employees in each of these divisions thus received practically the same amount of work, on the average, over the year.

[8] The district averages in each of these divisions were as follows:

District	Blast furnaces	Steel works	Rolling mills
Eastern	47.4	47.5	46.2
Pittsburgh	47.5	46.6	47.0
Great Lakes and Middle West	47.9	46.7	46.2
Southern	45.8	46.5	46.0

A comparison of the distribution according to the number of weeks over which the work was spread shows that the principal differences between the divisions occurred in the group whose work extended over 52 weeks, the actual percentages therefor being 48.6 in rolling mills, 59.7 in steel works, and 67.4 in blast furnaces.

Earnings of Common Laborers

THE annual data which were obtained for 3,233 common laborers show that those whose work extended over the entire year (52 weeks) earned an average of $729 in 1934, whereas for those whose work was distributed over 40 or more weeks the average was $673. This latter figure is $118, or 21.3 percent, more than the average of $555 for all the common laborers reported.

Among those whose work extended throughout the entire year, 3.1 percent received less than $400, 10.5 percent less than $500, 26.5 percent less than $600, and 44.4 percent less than $700 (table 4). Of the employees receiving $700 and above (55.6 percent), 35.1 percent were paid $800 and over, 17.1 percent $900 and over, and only 5.9 percent $1,000 and over.

An examination of the figures relating to those employees whose work was spread over 40 or more weeks reveals that 7.4 percent earned under $400, 18.7 percent under $500, 37.3 percent under $600, and 56.9 percent under $700. Of the remaining 43.1 percent receiving $700 and above, 24.8 percent were paid $800 and above, 11.9 percent $900 and above, and only 4.5 percent $1,000 and above.

Lastly, taking all common laborers who worked any part of 1934, the distribution in the same table shows that 16.4 percent earned under $300, 27.2 percent under $400, and 41.5 percent under $500. Among the 58.5 percent paid $500 and over, 42.5 percent earned $600 and more, 28.5 percent $700 and more, 16.3 percent $800 and more, 7.8 percent $900 and more, and only 3.0 percent $1,000 and more.

Table 4.—Distribution of Common Laborers in the Iron and Steel Industry According to Annual Earnings and Number of Weeks Over Which Work was Distributed, 1934

Number of weeks over which work was distributed	Common laborers whose annual earnings were—						
	Under $100	$100 and under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700
Under 4 weeks	13						
4 and under 8 weeks	25	2					
8 and under 12 weeks	14	55	2				
12 and under 16 weeks	6	64	27				
16 and under 20 weeks	1	22	31	7	6		
20 and under 24 weeks	6	39	42	30	6	3	
24 and under 28 weeks	1	19	42	47	25	5	
24 and under 26 weeks	1	9	23	27	9	3	
26 and under 28 weeks		10	19	20	16	2	
28 and under 32 weeks	1	12	28	49	57	21	
32 and under 36 weeks		3	32	73	76	49	
36 and under 40 weeks		1	6	27	55	49	
40 and under 44 weeks		1	10	34	37	63	
44 and under 48 weeks		1	6	22	33	32	
48 and under 52 weeks		1	7	34	78	99	
52 weeks		1	11	26	90	195	
Total employees	67	221	244	349	463	516	
Simple percentage	2.1	6.8	7.5	10.8	14.3	16.0	
Cumulative percentage	2.1	8.9	16.4	27.2	41.5	57.5	

Number of weeks over which work was distributed	Common laborers whose annual earnings were—				Number of employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
	$700 and under $800	$800 and under $900	$900 and under $1,000	$1,000 and over			
Under 4 weeks					13	0.4	0.4
4 and under 8 weeks					27	.8	1.2
8 and under 12 weeks					71	2.2	3.4
12 and under 16 weeks					97	3.0	6.4
16 and under 20 weeks					67	2.1	8.5
20 and under 24 weeks	1				128	4.0	12.5
24 and under 28 weeks	2				141	4.4	16.9
24 and under 26 weeks					72	2.2	14.7
26 and under 28 weeks	2				69	2.2	16.9
28 and under 32 weeks		1			172	5.3	22.2
32 and under 36 weeks	3	1	1	1	259	8.0	30.2
36 and under 40 weeks	8	1			164	5.1	35.3
40 and under 44 weeks	26	5	2	1	229	7.1	42.4
44 and under 48 weeks	23	10	1	2	157	4.9	47.3
48 and under 52 weeks	83	37	15	20	491	15.2	62.5
52 weeks	250	219	136	72	1,217	37.5	100.0
Total employees	396	274	155	96	3,233	100.0	
Simple percentage	12.2	8.5	4.8	3.0			
Cumulative percentage	83.7	92.2	97.0	100.0			

In the case of common laborers, one might expect a relatively small number of regular employees. This was not the case, however, as the average number of weeks over which their work was distributed in 1934 amounted to 41.4, which may be compared with 46.4 for the male wage earners in the industry as a whole. Furthermore, it may be seen from table 4 that 37.5 percent obtained some work in each payroll period throughout the year, and that 64.7 percent had work periods that spread over 40 or more weeks. Thus 35.3 percent had a work time of less than 40 weeks; this included 14.7 percent who were employed over periods of less than 26 weeks or 6 months.

Earnings of Male Office Employees

ANNUAL-EARNINGS information was obtained for 940 male office employees whose names appeared on the March 1935 pay rolls.[9] Those among this number whose work was spread over 52 weeks earned an average of $1,511. This amount is $113 greater than the average of $1,398 for all employees who worked any part of 1934.

An analysis of the individual earnings of all the office employees reveals that 6.6 percent received less than $600 and 20.0 percent less than $1,000. Those paid $1,000 and under $1,400 amounted to 30.2 percent, which means that slightly over one-half, or 50.2 percent, earned less than $1,400. The proportion paid $1,400 and under $1,800 was 32.4 percent, which leaves 17.4 percent with earnings of $1,800 and over. Very few of the latter made as much as $2,400.

Regularity of employment was noticeable among male office employees, as they averaged 49.8 weeks during the year. In this connection, it is interesting to note that 82.4 percent had periods of employment extending over the entire year (52 weeks), as contrasted with only 7.4 percent working for periods which spread over less than 40 weeks.

Earnings of Female Workers

SLIGHTLY over 70 percent of the 404 female wage earners included in the survey had periods of employment which extended throughout the year. These workers earned an average of $684. This amount, however, is only $80 more than the average of $604 for all female employees who worked any part of 1934. The small differential is due to the fact that the average number of weeks over which the work of all female employees was spread (47.1 weeks) is close to full time.

The average annual earnings of female office employees whose work extended throughout the year amounted to $1,089 in 1934. That figure is $96 greater than the average of $993 for the 297 covered by this survey. As less than 10 percent of the female office employees had periods of employment of less than 40 weeks, the average for all was 49.1 weeks.

Farm Wages and Employment on April 1, 1937

WAGES of hired farm laborers averaged $1.58 per day without board, for the country as a whole, on April 1, 1937, according to the quarterly report on farm wages and employment issued by the United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics in a press release dated April 15. The rates ranged, however, throughout the country, from 80 cents in South Carolina to $2.85 in Connecticut. The general

[9] The office employees covered in this survey excluded auditors, chief accountants, salesmen, supervisory and clerical forces in general offices, as well as those in plant offices not directly chargeable to the departments scheduled, and some higher plant-office supervisory employees whose salaries were carried on private rolls.

average on April 1 of last year was $1.43, with the rates in the individual States ranging from 75 cents in South Carolina to $2.70 in Rhode Island.

Table 1 shows average farm wage rates, supply of and demand for farm labor, and number of persons employed per farm, on April 1, 1937, as compared with January 1, 1937, January 1 and April 1, 1936, and, for wage rates, with the annual average 1910–14.

Table 1.—Average Farm Wage Rates and Employment at Specified Periods

Item	Annual average 1910–14	Jan. 1, 1936	Apr. 1, 1936	Jan. 1, 1937	Apr. 1, 1937
Farm wage index	100	94	101	103	112
Farm wage rates:					
Per month, with board	$20.41	$18.54	$20.89	$20.68	$23.38
Per month, without board	29.09	28.63	30.87	31.37	34.16
Per day, with board	1.10	1.00	1.05	1.10	1.16
Per day, without board	1.43	1.37	1.43	1.51	1.58
Supply of and demand for farm labor (percent of normal):					
Supply		96.7	93.8	91.0	87.2
Demand		76.0	82.1	81.7	86.6
Supply as a percentage of demand		127.2	114.3	111.4	100.7
Number of persons employed per farm: [1]					
Family labor		1.99	1.95	1.94	1.97
Hired labor		.62	.89	.69	.78
Combined		2.61	2.84	2.63	2.75

[1] On farms of crop reporters.

Average farm wage rates per month and per day, with board and without board, on April 1, 1937, are given in table 2, by State and geographic division.

Table 2.—Average Farm Wage Rates on April 1, 1937, by State and Geographic Division

Geographic division and State	Per month		Per day	
	With board	Without board	With board	Without board
United States	$23.38	$34.16	$1.16	$1.58
New England	31.41	53.11	1.77	2.50
Maine	29.00	44.75	1.65	2.15
New Hampshire	31.00	52.50	1.85	2.65
Vermont	29.25	44.50	1.55	2.20
Massachusetts	32.75	58.50	1.90	2.65
Rhode Island	41.75	67.25	1.90	2.75
Connecticut	32.75	61.75	1.90	2.85
Middle Atlantic	28.44	45.13	1.62	2.25
New York	30.25	46.00	1.65	2.30
New Jersey	29.00	52.00	1.75	2.35
Pennsylvania	26.00	42.00	1.55	2.15
East North Central	29.59	41.23	1.51	1.98
Ohio	26.75	38.50	1.50	2.00
Indiana	27.25	38.00	1.35	1.80
Illinois	31.50	41.25	1.55	1.95
Michigan	30.75	44.25	1.65	2.20
Wisconsin	31.25	44.75	1.50	2.00
West North Central	26.32	36.28	1.25	1.75
Minnesota	29.50	40.50	1.40	2.05
Iowa	32.50	40.50	1.50	2.00
Missouri	20.75	29.25	.95	1.30
North Dakota	25.50	39.50	1.15	1.80
South Dakota	26.00	36.75	1.20	1.75
Nebraska	25.00	35.00	1.25	1.70
Kansas	23.25	34.50	1.25	1.70

Table 2.—Average Farm Wage Rates on April 1, 1937, by State and Geographic Division—Continued

Geographic division and State	Per month		Per day	
	With board	Without board	With board	Without board
South Atlantic	16.43	24.30	.83	1.13
Delaware	24.25	36.50	1.40	1.80
Maryland	25.00	37.50	1.25	1.65
Virginia	20.25	29.00	1.00	1.35
West Virginia	22.00	32.25	1.05	1.45
North Carolina	17.75	26.00	.90	1.20
South Carolina	12.25	17.75	.60	.80
Georgia	12.50	18.50	.65	.90
Florida	15.00	26.25	.80	1.20
East South Central	15.65	22.65	.77	1.00
Kentucky	18.75	26.25	.90	1.15
Tennessee	16.75	24.25	.80	1.00
Alabama	13.50	20.25	.70	.90
Mississippi	13.75	20.00	.70	.95
West South Central	18.20	26.38	.90	1.17
Arkansas	15.75	23.00	.75	1.00
Louisiana	14.75	22.50	.75	1.00
Oklahoma	19.00	28.50	.95	1.30
Texas	20.25	28.50	1.00	1.25
Mountain	34.34	50.36	1.58	2.15
Montana	36.00	53.25	1.75	2.55
Idaho	40.25	57.00	1.85	2.35
Wyoming	34.75	51.50	1.55	2.25
Colorado	28.75	47.00	1.40	2.00
New Mexico	26.50	38.75	1.20	1.65
Arizona	37.75	53.25	1.55	2.05
Utah	41.50	55.25	1.90	2.40
Nevada	40.25	60.25	1.55	2.50
Pacific	41.57	64.14	1.86	2.70
Washington	37.25	55.50	1.85	2.60
Oregon	35.50	52.00	1.70	2.35
California	44.00	69.00	1.90	2.80

Salaries in Public Libraries, 1936

SALARY increases in a few public libraries were reported for November 1, 1936, as compared with December 31, 1935, also some restorations of salary reductions and practically no cuts in individual salaries. The trend toward more substantial appropriations for libraries is obvious from the latest annual survey of these institutions made under the auspices of the American Library Association Committee on Salaries, Staff, and Service.[1] Despite the incompleteness of the statistics, the member of the committee writing the report holds that the average of the increases and restorations does not equal the rise in the cost of living—"In other words, 'real' salaries probably show little increase, and may in fact be decreased."

The survey included public libraries in various cities in the United States and Canada having over 10,000 population. Questionnaires were sent to the 50 cities having a population of more than 200,000, and were returned by all but 2. Some of these replies were incomplete and certain libraries asked that part of the data furnished be kept confidential. In this group of the largest cities, salaries for chief librarians in effect November 1, 1936,[2] listed in the following table, ranged from $2,845 in Winnipeg, Manitoba, to $10,000 in Newark, N. J. The minimum salary for a department head was $734 in New Orleans

[1] Bulletin of the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Ave., Chicago, April 1937, pp. 237–264.
[2] Salaries in the St. Louis Public Library are reported for Dec. 31, 1935.

and the maximum for the same position was $4,662 in Chicago. Catalogers' salaries were as low as $800 in Cincinnati and as high as $2,700 in Cleveland.

Table 1.—Salaries Paid for Specified Occupations in Public Libraries in Cities of Over 200,000 Population, in Effect Nov. 1, 1936

City	Chief librarian	Department heads			Branch and sub-branch librarians			Catalogers [1]		
		Number	Minimum	Maximum	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Number	Minimum	Maximum
United States and Canada:										
High	$10,000	20	$3,200	$4,662	49	$2,400	$3,300	14	$2,090	$2,700
Median	5,000	8	1,836	2,712	12	1,500	1,960	4	1,315½	1,800
Low	2,845	1	734	1,728	1	734	734	1	800	864
United States										
Akron, Ohio	5,000	6	2,280	2,500	8	1,425	1,900	1	1,425	
Atlanta, Ga. [2]	3,420	6	1,539	1,995	7	1,200	1,596	4	1,368	1,427
Baltimore, Md	7,000	([3])	2,000	3,200	([3])	1,320	1,920	([3])	1,260	1,500
Birmingham, Ala. [4]	3,640	11	1,104	2,730	10	799	1,638	1	1,062	
Buffalo, N. Y	5,500	11	2,300	2,900	16	1,600	2,000	12	1,284	1,845
Chicago, Ill	([5])	12	2,411	4,662	44	1,501	3,055	6	2,090	2,572
Cincinnati, Ohio [2]	([5])	13	1,960	3,000	30	1,000	1,880	13	800	1,800
Cleveland, Ohio [6]	9,000	8	2,900	4,300	32	2,100	3,300	12	1,550	2,700
Columbus, Ohio	4,117	4	1,687	2,092	5	1,282	1,417	3	1,147	1,417
Dallas, Tex	3,000	4	1,500	1,800	4	1,200	1,380	2	1,200	1,380
Dayton, Ohio	5,400	9	1,836	2,754	7	1,242	2,052	4	1,782	2,052
Denver, Colo	6,000	13	1,680	2,500	12	1,200	1,560	4	1,080	1,560
Detroit, Mich	8,500	15	2,520	3,960	18	2,400	2,640	13	1,860	2,220
Houston, Tex	3,600	4	1,470	2,010	3	900	1,470	1	1,200	
Indianapolis, Ind	5,600	11	1,848	2,724	19	1,416	2,664	4	1,224	1,524
Jersey City, N. J	5,856	5	2,193	2,346	13	1,428	1,734	8	1,428	1,734
Kansas City, Mo	([7])	[8] 11	1,522	2,520	14	1,522	2,100	6	1,276	1,522
Los Angeles, Calif. (city)	5,400	20	2,109	3,053	39	1,881	2,498	13	1,311	1,824
Los Angeles, Calif. (county) [9]	4,575				11⅔	1,100	1,679	7	1,332	1,737
Louisville, Ky. [2]	6,000	8	1,800	2,220	7	1,800	1,800	([3])		
Memphis, Tenn. [2]	([3])	([3])			([3])			([3])		
Milwaukee, Wis. [2]	7,000	11	2,400	4,500	17	1,860	2,220	4	1,860	1,980
Minneapolis, Minn	6,000	13	2,100	3,000	23	1,900	2,500	2	900	1,800
New Orleans, La	([10])	8	734	1,728	6	734	734	3	864	864
New York City		26	1,920	4,640	109	1,980	([5])	30	1,320	2,360
N. Y. P. L. circulation dept. [11]	7,340	7	2,250	3,030	49	2,080	([5])	10	1,380	2,360
Brooklyn	9,140	9	2,195	4,640	34	2,000	2,640	12	1,440	2,000
Queens	7,500	10	1,920	3,360	26	1,980	2,640	8	1,320	2,025
Newark, N. J	10,000	9	1,200	3,200	8	1,500	3,100	3	1,500	2,000
Oakland, Calif	6,000	5	2,100	2,400	18	1,560	1,800	1	1,560	
Omaha, Nebr. [12]	3,040	7	1,500	2,200	5	1,020	1,740	2	1,080	1,140
Philadelphia, Pa	([5])	12	1,800	2,000	32	1,350	1,700	3	1,350	1,840
Pittsburgh, Pa		13	1,600	3,600	13	1,458	1,944	7	1,260	1,800
Old City	[12] 5,400	9	2,430	3,600	12	1,458	1,944	6	1,260	1,800
Allegheny	3,750	4	1,600	2,000	1	1,800		1	1,490	
Portland, Oreg. [2]	([5])	9	([3])	([3])	17	([3])	([3])	6	([3])	([3])
Providence, R. I		9	1,764	2,738	15	1,580	1,960	5	1,078	1,426
Providence, P. L	([5])	7	1,764	2,738	15	1,580	1,960	5	1,078	1,426
Elmwood P. L	([5])	2	1,805	1,995						
Rochester, N. Y	6,000	15	1,500	3,200	12	1,500	2,300	2	1,600	1,800
St. Louis, Mo. [13]	8,500	16	1,674	3,240	14	1,593	1,971	14	1,026	1,890
St. Paul, Minn	([5])	4	([5])	([5])	5	([5])	([5])	4	([5])	([5])
San Antonio, Tex	3,000	3	1,620	1,800	3	960	1,320			
San Francisco, Calif	4,800	11	2,100	3,000	21	1,560	2,100	3	1,920	1,920
Seattle, Wash	5,000	4	1,800	2,213	10	1,344	1,836	1⅓	1,344	
Syracuse, N. Y	5,000	10	1,500	2,500	5	1,500	2,500	1	1,300	
Toledo, Ohio [14]	5,400	6	2,430	2,700	13	1,440	1,980	4	990	990
Washington, D. C	8,000	5	3,200	3,400	10	1,680	3,300	2	1,800	2,100
Youngstown, Ohio [2]	6,600	3	2,520	2,700	7	1,200	2,280	1	1,200	
Canada										
Toronto, Ontario	8,000	2	1,700	1,900	16	1,700	1,950	11	1,110	2,000
Vancouver, British Columbia	3,746	5	2,052	2,052	1	1,642		1	1,590	
Winnipeg, Manitoba	2,845	1	1,557							

[1] Excludes department head.
[2] Serves city and county.
[3] Not reported.
[4] Serves city and part of county.
[5] Salary confidential or not for publication.
[6] Figures for city service only; Cuyahoga County served by contract and separate statistics kept.
[7] Part-time.
[8] Includes acting librarian.
[9] Serves part of the county.
[10] Vacant until Dec. 1, 1936.
[11] Serves 3 boroughs—Bronx, Manhattan, and Richmond.
[12] Plus $2,000 as director of library school.
[13] Salaries in effect Dec. 31, 1935.
[14] Figures for city service only.

Salaries for five classes of employees in libraries, grouped according to population served, are reported in the accompanying summary.

Table 2.—Summary of Public Library Statistics as of November 1936

Libraries serving—	Salary of—							
	Chief librarian	Assistant chief librarian	Department heads		Branch and sub-branch librarians		Professional assistants [1]	
			Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum
200,000 population and over:								
High	$10,000	$5,525	$3,200	$4,662	$2,400	$3,300	$1,680	$3,500
Median	5,000	3,270	1,836	2,712	1,500	1,960	1,200	1,800
Low	2,845	1,485	734	1,728	734	734	582	793
100,000 to 199,999 population:								
High	6,000	2,640	2,220	2,600	2,100	2,220	2,000	2,100
Median	3,500	2,175	1,500	1,951	1,314½	1,608	1,170	1,380
Low	2,584	1,560	1,080	1,236	600	790	600	900
35,000 to 99,999 population:								
High	5,220	2,950	2,345	3,000	2,200	2,252	1,575	1,800
Median	3,000	2,018	1,500	1,800	1,450	1,560	1,080	1,457
Low	1,200	540	980	1,140	913	913	792	960
10,000 to 34,999 population:								
High	4,000	3,000	1,980	2,160	2,100	1,800	2,160	2,160
Median	2,000	1,500	1,300	1,567	1,200	1,260	1,000	1,140
Low	960	800	750	1,020	660	720	600	810

[1] Excludes catalogers, children's librarians, and school librarians.

The article from which the above statistics are taken includes salaries paid by individual cities in four population groups for the positions reported on in the summary, and also the salaries paid to division heads, children's librarians, and nonprofessional assistants.

Wages and Working Conditions in the Jewelry Industry In Rhode Island, 1936

HOURLY wage rates prevailing in the jewelry industry in Rhode Island in August 1936 indicated a decided reduction from the minimum rate of 32½ cents an hour fixed by the N. R. A. code for the industry. Under code provisions, only 10 percent of the employees could be paid less than the minimum for experienced workers, and no one could be employed for less than the 26-cent hourly rate set for learners. In August 1936, according to a survey made by the division of women and children of the Rhode Island Department of Labor,[1] 23.5 percent of the women and 46.3 percent of the male minors employed in the plants covered were paid less than 26 cents an hour, and one-third of all employees were receiving less than 32½

[1] Rhode Island. Department of Labor. Division of Women and Children. Survey of Hours, Wages and Other Conditions of Employment in the Jewelry Industry in the State of Rhode Island. Providence. 1936. (Mimeographed.)

cents an hour. Of those receiving less than the code minimum, 85 percent were women and male minors.

The jewelry industry employs more women than any other manufacturing industry in Rhode Island except textiles, and in 1935 it was the largest employer of children under 16 years of age. In view of the importance of the industry with regard to the employment of workers affected by the minimum-wage law of Rhode Island and because of complaints of low wages made to the State department of labor, this industry was the subject of the first survey undertaken by the department under the authority of the minimum-wage law. The survey, conducted by the division of women and children, covered 66 percent of all establishments and 58 percent of all employees in the industry in Rhode Island, and included all branches of manufacture except those involving precious stones and some of the precious metals. Data were obtained for the week of August 1, 1936, wherever possible.

Wage-Payment Methods

Both piece rates and time rates are used in the jewelry industry, and in some cases, a combination of both methods. Generally speaking, a smaller proportion of the men than of the women are piece workers. Under the N. R. A. code, the employer was required to make up any deficit between the earnings paid on a piece-price basis and the amount that would have been earned at the minimum hourly rate in the same number of hours. The practice was discontinued after the invalidation of the code, because few employers undertook to maintain a minimum level of earnings.

Three groups of production workers, in addition to skilled craftsmen and machine operators, are found in the jewelry industry. These are helpers, learners, and apprentices. In certain processes, notably soldering, it is a common practice for workers to employ helpers. In other instances the soldering may be subcontracted to a person who does the soldering for the entire plant and hires as many helpers as he requires. The practice varies as to whether or not the names of the helpers thus employed appear on the firm's pay roll.

Inexperienced workers are in some cases classed as learners and serve a training period varying from 2 weeks to 6 months. The learning period allowed under the code was 6 weeks, after which the minimum hourly rates became applicable. While at present some firms have no learner group, others place as much as 38 percent of their employees in the learner class.

Apprentices are found only in the skilled tool-making and die-cutting branches of the industry. They are paid by the hour, a period of 1,000 hours constituting each step in the training period

on which increases in the hourly rate are based. The entering rate of 25 cents an hour is increased by 2½ cents for each successive period. The investigators, however, found workers classed as apprentices who were paid as low as 10 cents an hour, and 8 out of 18 apprentice tool makers received less than the 25-cent rate payable under the terms of apprenticeship adopted by the manufacturers' association.

The bonus system is not practiced to any extent, and no firm found in the course of the study reported any fining system.

Wage Rates and Earnings

THE total number of employees for whom data on hourly rates were obtained was 7,797. Of these, 4,020 averaged less than 35 cents an hour in the week studied, 2,240 averaged between 35 cents and 50 cents; 1,091 between 50 cents and 75 cents, and 446 averaged 75 cents or more. However, women and male minors made up 85 percent of the lowest-paid group, while 93.7 percent of the high-wage group were men.

Table 1 shows classified hourly earnings of time workers and piece workers in each employee classification—men, women, and male minors.

Table 1.—Hourly Earnings of Time and Piece Workers in the Jewelry Industry in Rhode Island, August 1936

Hourly earnings	Time workers				Piece workers			
	Total	Men	Women	Male minors	Total	Men	Women	Male minors
All groups	5,745	2,401	3,120	222	1,667	415	1,214	38
Less than 10 cents	1	1	0	0	9	0	9	0
10.0 and under 12.5 cents	16	4	10	2	11	0	10	1
12.5 and under 15.0 cents	28	3	21	4	19	1	16	2
15.0 and under 17.5 cents	103	19	68	16	36	3	30	3
17.5 and under 20.0 cents	47	7	33	7	61	2	52	7
20.0 and under 22.5 cents	206	30	162	14	75	4	66	5
22.5 and under 25.0 cents	164	21	129	14	88	8	78	2
25.0 and under 27.5 cents	671	100	520	51	143	9	133	1
27.5 and under 30.0 cents	202	26	166	10	156	17	134	5
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	337	83	228	26	159	30	126	3
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	1,261	209	996	56	172	21	151	0
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	486	183	293	10	154	29	125	0
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	214	75	136	3	117	20	95	2
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	433	274	153	6	102	29	71	2
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	91	58	33	0	63	20	41	2
45.0 and under 50.0 cents	316	252	62	2	95	53	40	2
50.0 and under 55.0 cents	295	247	48	0	68	49	19	0
55.0 and under 60.0 cents	120	106	14	0	39	28	11	0
60.0 and under 65.0 cents	180	164	15	1	24	21	3	0
65.0 and under 70.0 cents	110	104	6	0	26	25	1	0
70.0 and under 75.0 cents	98	88	10	0	14	12	2	0
75.0 cents and over	366	349	17	0	36	34	1	1

Table 2 gives median hourly earnings in 1 week in August 1936 in each branch of the industry for each class of employee.

Table 2.—Median Hourly Earnings in Jewelry Industry in Rhode Island in August 1936, by Sex and by Branch of Industry

Branch of industry	Total	Men	Women	Male minors
	Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Compacts, vanity cases, and cigarette cases	36.0	52.0	30.7	31.2
Dress, millinery, and shoe ornaments	30.6	33.8	29.6	
Emblems	49.2	61.7	39.7	18.8
Enameling	32.1	50.0	31.4	
Findings	37.6	50.3	34.4	26.3
General line and men's jewelry	33.0	43.5	32.0	25.0
Gold and sterling jewelry	45.2	54.6	34.7	27.5
Machine chain	34.5	53.3	31.8	26.3
Miscellaneous specialties	26.2	41.6	25.0	20.8
Novelties and plastic jewelry	34.5	45.4	33.2	32.6
Optical goods	39.2	50.4	36.0	31.0
Pearl jewelry	26.8	36.0	25.3	25.2
Pens and pencils	33.6	33.7	31.7	31.3
Plating and soldering	36.3	51.5	26.6	33.9
Religious goods and school and college jewelry	40.9	47.0	35.7	36.3
Rings	36.4	49.0	34.3	32.5
Syndicate store jewelry	34.6	44.6	33.7	27.1
Watch bracelets and wrist watch attachments	34.5	51.2	33.0	23.8
White stone jewelry (rhinestone)	33.3	45.4	28.9	27.0

Weekly earnings.—Median full-time weekly earnings for 4,582 employees who actually worked the full working hours (40 to 48) in the week of August 1, 1936, were $14.94; of these 1,770 were men, whose median weekly wage was $20.06; 2,635 were women with median earnings of $13.79; and 177 were male minors with a median of $12.08 for the week. The range for men was from less than $6 received by 1 man, to more than $40, earned by 147 men. Among the women, 1 earned less than $4, and 12 earned more than $40. In a week of full employment, 21.6 percent of the men, 67.6 percent of the women, and 88.7 percent of the male minors earned less than $15.

Annual earnings.—Records of annual earnings were obtained for a sample group of 56 jewelry workers in 8 branches of the industry. The median number of weeks worked by this group during the year was 48.5 and the median of hours worked per week was 36.7.

Thus annual earnings for substantially full-time employment were reported. These ranged from $84.05 to $1,487.52, with a median of $531.55.

To indicate the intermittent character of employment in the industry, even when lost time amounts only to 4 or 5 weeks, the following work records are selected from those shown for the 56 workers reporting annual earnings:

A worked 47 weeks out of 52, distributed thus: 9 weeks in, 2 out, 8 in, 2 out, 26 in, 1 out, and 4 in.

B, during 47 weeks of employment out of 52, worked 22 weeks in succession, lost 1 week, worked 6, lost 1, worked 17, lost 3, and worked 2.

C worked 48 weeks, 33 consecutively. Then for 5 weeks unemployment and employment alternated, followed by 2 weeks in and 1 week out, and then by 11 consecutive weeks' work.

Agricultural Wages in Canada, 1933 to 1936

DURING the summer season of 1936, for Canada as a whole, the estimated cash wage of male farm workers was $21—or $1 above the 1935 estimate and $4 above that for 1933. The corresponding figures for female farm labor were $11 for 1936 and 1935, and $10 for 1933. The estimated monthly value of board during the summer season of 1936 for males was $16 and for females $13—in each case $1 above the estimate for 1933. In 1936 the average annual wages and board combined were $374 for males and $261 for females, the compensation for males being 4.5 percent higher than in 1935 and 14.9 percent higher than in 1933. For females the 1936 figure was 2.8 percent above that of 1935 and 6.1 percent above that of 1933.

Average wages of male and female agricultural laborers in the various Canadian Provinces in 1933, 1935, and 1936 are reported in the accompanying table compiled from the February 1936 and February 1937 issues of the Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Statistics published by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Average Monthly and Yearly Wages of Farm Workers in Canada, 1933, 1935, and 1936

[Estimated by crop correspondents of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics]

Province and year	Per month, summer season						Per year					
	Males			Females			Males			Females		
	Cash wage	Value of board	Total	Cash wage	Value of board	Total	Cash wage	Value of board	Total	Cash wage	Value of board	Total
Canada:												
1933	$17	$15	$32	$10	$12	$22	$161	$161	$322	$112	$134	$246
1935	20	15	35	11	12	23	184	174	358	117	137	254
1936	21	16	37	11	13	24	206	168	374	126	135	261
Prince Edward Island:												
1933	18	12	30	11	10	21	178	141	319	116	121	237
1935	18	13	31	11	11	22	188	155	343	122	125	247
1936	18	13	31	11	11	22	190	161	351	126	136	262
Nova Scotia:												
1933	20	14	34	12	11	23	208	157	365	129	119	248
1935	22	15	37	13	11	24	213	151	364	128	117	245
1936	22	15	37	12	11	23	245	170	415	136	124	260
New Brunswick:												
1933	18	13	31	10	10	20	185	151	336	107	120	227
1935	21	14	35	10	11	21	210	150	360	103	113	216
1936	25	15	40	11	11	22	257	141	398	117	101	218
Quebec:												
1933	17	11	28	9	9	18	152	113	265	94	93	187
1935	18	13	31	10	10	20	170	136	306	98	98	196
1936	19	13	32	10	10	20	196	136	332	106	100	206
Ontario:												
1933	17	15	32	12	13	25	159	166	325	123	141	264
1935	20	16	36	12	14	26	187	185	372	137	150	287
1936	21	16	37	13	14	27	211	177	388	147	148	295
Manitoba:												
1933	15	14	29	8	12	20	143	164	307	89	140	229
1935	17	15	32	9	12	21	160	163	323	92	140	232
1936	19	15	34	9	13	22	178	158	336	103	132	235
Saskatchewan:												
1933	16	15	31	8	12	20	144	161	305	85	137	222
1935	18	15	33	9	13	22	173	172	345	96	144	240
1936	19	16	35	9	13	22	188	158	346	105	133	238
Alberta:												
1933	19	15	34	10	13	23	170	174	344	109	152	261
1935	21	16	37	11	14	25	189	178	367	115	156	271
1936	22	16	38	11	14	25	206	172	378	125	146	271
British Columbia:												
1933	23	19	42	14	15	29	234	212	446	152	180	332
1935	26	19	45	14	16	30	242	223	465	160	187	347
1936	25	21	46	15	17	32	265	229	494	166	192	358

Wages in Peiping, 1936

THE findings of a survey of Peiping factories in 1936, made in accordance with the labor law, showed in many cases great differences between the minimum and maximum wages of male workers. The American consul general at Tientsin, who transmitted [1] the wage statistics presented in the following table embodying some of the results of this investigation, comments especially on the maximum monthly wage of $100 (Chinese currency) [2] paid by an electric-light company, which he assumes to be the salary of an engineer or possibly of the manager of this plant. In certain other establishments the salaries of managers, the consul general thinks, have also been included. The minimum monthly wages, as shown in the table below, range from one-half dollar (Chinese currency) in an iron foundry to $30 (Chinese currency) in an establishment in the clay. stone, and glass industry. Except in a few of the reporting factories, working hours are 10 per day.

Monthly Wages of Male Workers in Peiping Factories, 1936 [1]

[Average exchange rate of yuan dollar in 1936=29.75 cents]

Industry and establishment	Number of male workers	Monthly wages (in Chinese currency)		Working hours per day
		Minimum	Maximum	
Iron industry:				
Foundries:				
No. 1	30	$4.00	$15.00	10
No. 2	29	8.00	12.00	10
No. 3	63	.50	1.00	10
No. 4	17	4.00	14.00	10
Machinery and metal industry:				
Establishments:				
No. 1	29	4.50	20.00	10
No. 2	79	4.50	40.00	11
No. 3	17	6.00	24.00	10
No. 4	27	6.00	14.00	10
No. 5	19	4.00	12.00	10
No. 6	21	6.00	14.00	10
No. 7	50	8.00	50.00	10
No. 8	53	10.00	45.00	10
No. 9	37	6.00	12.00	9
Clay, stone, and glass industry:				
Establishments:				
No. 1	27	30.00	50.00	10
No. 2	53	5.00	5.00	10
Public utilities:				
Electric light company—power plant	187	9.00	100.00	8
Waterworks company	31	12.00	70.00	8
Chemical industry:				
Match factory	165	10.00	30.00	10
Soap factory	22	3.00	13.00	10
Spinning and weaving industry:				
Carpet factories:				
No. 1	225	8.70	15.00	9
No. 2	33	4.00	9.00	10
No. 3	79	6.00	9.00	10
Dyeing and spinning plant	51	1.00	18.00	11
Leather products factory	25	4.00	10.00	10
Woolen goods factory	57	7.00	14.00	10
Food and tobacco industries:				
Beer factory	187	12.00	38.00	10
Paper and printing industry:				
Paper factories:				
No. 1	52	4.00	15.00	10
No. 2	25	4.00	29.00	10
Printing plants:				
No. 1	128	20.00	95.00	8
No. 2	35	9.00	50.00	10
No. 3	37	10.00	30.00	10
No. 4	30	6.00	30.00	10

[1] Apprentices not included.

[1] Report of Jan. 12, 1937.

[2] Average exchange rate of yuan dollar in 1936=29.75 cents in United States currency.

In only three establishments were the wages of females reported—a feather-products factory and two paper factories—and the maximum wages to female workers in these plants were one-fifth of a yuan dollar for a working day of 10 hours.

Wages in France, October 1936

A GENERAL upward movement of wages in France was started with the enactment of various labor laws by Parliament in June 1936, providing for the immediate application of collective agreements, a shorter working week without reduction in pay, and establishment of minimum wages in different parts of the country. The annual wage study [1] made by the General Statistical Bureau of France in October each year was made somewhat more difficult than usual in 1936 by the fact that the wages of certain classes of workers were in course of revision at the time the study was made and the increases, therefore, had not affected all occupations in all the sections of the country. However, the general upward trend is evident in the hourly wages shown in the tables. The hourly wages reported are based on a normal day of 8 hours, in general, as the law establishing the 40-hour week without change in the weekly wage rate had not been put into effect at the time the study was made.

The wage data for this study are secured through questionnaires addressed to officers of trade councils, employers' organizations, and mayors or other competent persons, the inquiry covering the same classes of workers each year.

Data giving the percentage increases in the different occupations among male workers in cities other than Paris in October 1936, as compared with October 1935, show that the increase in average hourly wages ranged from 10.4 percent for bookbinders to 22.8 percent for harness makers. In the region of Paris the increase in the hourly wages of workers in all occupations averaged 13.5 percent.

Table 1 gives the average hourly wages in different occupations in October 1935 and 1936 in Paris and other cities.

[1] France. Présidence du Conseil. Bulletin de la Statistique générale de la France, January–March 1937, pp. 260–279.

Table 1.—Average Hourly Wages in French Cities in October 1935 and 1936, by Occupation

[Average exchange rate of franc in October 1935=6.59 cents; October 1936=4.67 cents]

Occupation	Average hourly wages in—			
	Paris and its environs		Cities other than Paris	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
Males	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Brewers			3.39	4.02
Printers, compositors	6.15	7.25	4.24	4.70
Bookbinders	5.05	6.75	4.13	4.56
Tanners			3.49	4.06
Saddlers, harnessmakers			3.42	4.20
Shoemakers			3.40	3.95
Tailors	5.50	6.38	3.84	4.42
Dyers, scourers			3.56	4.12
Weavers			2.90	3.62
Ropemakers			3.33	3.92
Wheelwrights			3.72	4.33
Wood turners	6.25	7.50	3.94	4.57
Coopers			3.75	4.34
Cabinet makers	5.87	6.50	3.97	4.55
Upholsterers			4.00	4.60
Pit sawyers		6.50	3.78	4.41
Carpenters	5.87	6.50	4.02	4.63
Joiners	5.87	6.75	3.88	4.53
Coppersmiths			4.16	4.81
Tinsmiths			3.83	4.53
Plumbers	6.25	7.25	3.96	4.63
Blacksmiths	6.10	7.50	3.89	4.57
Farriers			3.74	4.32
Stovemakers			3.83	4.53
Locksmiths	6.00	7.25	3.77	4.48
Fitters			4.01	4.74
Metal turners	6.05	7.20	4.03	4.84
Electrical fitters	6.00	6.80	4.03	4.77
Watchmakers			4.26	4.83
Quarrymen	6.25	6.50	3.58	4.16
Stonecutters	9.25	9.25	4.16	4.84
Masons	6.37	7.00	3.92	4.59
Navvies	6.25	6.50	3.31	3.96
Roofers	6.25	7.25	4.02	4.72
House painters	6.00	7.00	3.83	4.48
Ornamental-stone cutters	7.12	7.67	4.95	5.50
Brickmakers			3.48	4.10
Potters			3.56	4.52
Glaziers	6.12	7.00	3.82	4.47
Motormen (tramways)			3.98	4.46
Conductors (tramways)			3.86	4.10
Truck drivers			3.83	4.44
Laborers			2.87	3.46
Average	6.23	7.06	3.80	4.42
Females				
Ironers			2.33	2.63
Dressmakers			2.33	2.67
Seamstresses			2.15	2.53
Waistcoat makers			2.33	2.71
Lacemakers			2.27	2.63
Embroiderers			2.19	2.62
Milliners			2.20	2.58
Average			2.26	2.62

Table 2 shows the average weekly wages paid in Paris to female workers in dressmaking and lingerie shops from 1934 to 1936, and in fashionable dressmaking shops in 1935 and 1936.

Table 2.—Average Weekly Wages in French Dressmaking Shops, 1934 to 1936

[Average exchange rate of franc in October 1934=6.62 cents; in October 1935=6.59 cents; and in October 1936=4.67 cents]

Occupation	1934	1935	1936
Dressmaking and lingerie shops:	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
First hands	190.80	187.20	208.00
Second hands	[1] 136.80	[2] 134.40	[3] 156.00
Helpers	91.20	89.40	105.60
Apprentices	43.35–54.30	44.45–53.20	48.00–64.80
Fashionable dressmaking shops:			
Skilled workers	----------	192.00	210.00
Workers of medium skill	----------	160.00	160.00
Helpers	----------	100.00	100.00
Apprentices	----------	[4] 190.00–260.00	[4] 217.00–260.00

[1] 116.40 francs for beginners.
[2] 114 francs for beginners.
[3] 148.80 francs for beginners.
[4] Per month.

A comparison of wages and cost of living as represented by the cost of board and lodging of an unmarried worker in the localities from which the wage data were secured usually shows a fairly close correlation between the curves of prices of board and lodging and of wages of men, although in 1936 the percentage increase in wages amounted to 15.7 as compared with 8.7 for board and lodging. It is pointed out in the report that it is more difficult to determine accurately the average price of board and lodging than average wages, because there are such great variations in these prices, especially in the more important cities.

Table 3.—Average Daily Wages and Cost of Board and Lodging in France, October 1934, 1935, and 1936

[Average exchange rate of franc in October 1934=6.62 cents; in October 1935=6.59 cents; and in October 1936=4.67 cents]

Item	October 1934	October 1935	October 1936	Index numbers (1911=100)		
				1934	1935	1936
Daily wages of:	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*			
Men	31.60	30.72	35.54	685	666	771
Women	18.38	18.13	24.02	803	792	917
Cost of board and lodging per month	496.00	473.00	514.00	709	676	734

A detailed study of wages in the machine, metallurgical, and related industries in the Paris region is made in February each year, but average wages are also secured quarterly for three occupational groups in these industries. From 1931 to 1935 comparatively slight changes were shown in the average hourly wages, but between the first and third quarters of 1936 there was an increase of 17 percent in the wages of skilled workers, 30 percent for ordinary workers, and 22 percent for all workers combined. The increase shown for the fourth quarter of 1936 in table 4 is due to the introduction of the 40-hour week on December 6, 1936.

Table 4.—Average Hourly Wages of Workers in French Metallurgical and Machine Industries in 1935 and 1936

[Average exchange rate of franc in 1935=6.60 cents, and in 1936=6.11 cents]

Occupation	1935 fourth quarter	1936			
		First quarter	Second quarter	Third quarter	Fourth quarter
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Highly skilled workers	6.32	6.35	6.70	7.43	7.89
Skilled workers	5.05	5.05	5.55	6.60	6.95
Ordinary workers	4.00	4.09	4.45	5.20	5.55
Average	5.59	5.62	6.01	6.84	7.25

Wages of French coal miners were remarkably stable between April 1, 1932, and June 1936, averaging about 35 francs per day for underground workers and 32 francs for underground and surface workers. However, between the second quarter of 1936 and the last quarter of the year the average daily wages of underground workers increased from 36.54 francs to 45.03 francs and of underground and surface workers combined from 33.59 francs to 41.63 francs. The 40-hour week was introduced in the mines November 1, 1936. It has had the effect, therefore, of reducing the number of days of work and, since the wages could not be reduced, of increasing the daily wage rate.

The number of days worked and the total earnings in the coal mines of France is shown below for the 7-year period 1930 to 1936.

Table 5.—Number of Days Worked and Total Earnings in French Coal Mines, 1930 to 1936

[Average exchange rate of franc in 1930 and 1931=3.92 cents; in 1932=3.93 cents; in 1933=5.03 cents; in 1934=6.57 cents; in 1935=6.6 cents; and in 1936=6.11 cents]

Year	Days worked	Earnings	Year	Days worked	Earnings
		Francs			*Francs*
1930	79,400,000	2,935,800,000	1934	56,600,000	1,846,500,000
1931	70,500,000	2,519,400,000	1935	53,900,000	1,749,700,000
1932	60,100,000	1,975,300,000	1936	53,600,000	2,005,300,000
1933	57,000,000	1,856,000,000			

French Wages and the Social Laws

AN APPENDIX to the regular wage report contains a brief analysis of the legal and other provisions which have resulted in wage increases, as well as statements of the wage rates established by some of the collective agreements signed since June 1936. An agreement signed by representatives of the General Confederation of French Production and the General Confederation of Labor, on June 7, 1936, in addition to defining the new relations between employers and employees, provided for the regulation of strikes then in progress, the immediate conclusion of collective labor agreements, and an immediate increase

in wages ranging from 7 to 15 percent, as well as the readjustment of abnormally low wages.

The law of March 25, 1919, on collective agreements, was amended by a law enacted June 24, 1936. The principal changes were the creation of mixed commissions of employers and employees, provision for the eventual extension, by decree of the Minister of Labor, of the collective agreements either to a branch of an industry or to a whole territory, and the organization of delegations of workers and employees. The law provided that the collective agreement should contain provisions regarding minimum wages by classes and by regions. Under the earlier law on collective agreements, little progress in the conclusion of such agreements had been made, but since the enactment of the law of June 1936, the extension of the principle of collective bargaining has been rapid, more than 1,000 collective agreements having been concluded between June 7, 1936, and September 7, 1936. Most of these agreements, conformably to the law, fix the minimum-wage rates, but do not indicate generally the percentage of increase resulting from the agreement.

In addition to the law on collective bargaining, two other laws have had an effect upon wages. These are the law of June 20, 1936, instituting annual paid vacations in industry, commerce, the liberal professions, domestic service, and agriculture, and the law of June 21, 1936, establishing the 40-hour week. The latter law, which is being applied progressively by industry, provides that in industries in which the 48-hour week had been in effect there should be no reduction in the remuneration of the workers.

One of the most important agreements, as regards number of persons affected, is the one covering workers in the metallurgical and machine industries. The agreement, concluded June 12, 1936, guaranteed minimum hourly wages based on the 48-hour week, ranging from 5 francs for ordinary laborers to 9 francs for wood-pattern makers. Among males the rate for ornamental-monument molders, and copper and sheet-iron shapers was 8.00 francs; metal-pattern makers and tool makers, 7.75 francs; coppersmiths, hammersmiths, ornamental-figure molders, and embossers, 7.50 francs; solderers, sheet-iron workers, and machine operators, 7.20 francs; and metal chasers and finishers, fitters, and molders, 7.00 francs. The rates for the other occupations ranged from 6.00 to 6.90 francs per hour. Among women the hourly rates varied from 4.25 francs for laborers to 5.30 francs for metal-machine operatives. The rate for young persons between the ages of 14 and 18 ranged from 3 to 5 francs per hour according to age.

In the electrical-construction industry the hourly rates for male workers ranged from 6.10 francs for electrical fitters' helpers and molders on automatic presses to 7.75 francs for skilled coil winders. The rates for the other occupations ranged from 6.25 to 7.00 francs

per hour. The wage rates of woman workers ranged from 4.40 to 6.00 francs per hour, the latter rate being paid for skilled coil winders.

An agreement was concluded July 19, 1936, between the group of metallurgical industries and the federation of technicians, draughtsmen, and similar workers in industry and the applied arts. The monthly salary rate for men over 22 years of age ranged from 1,100 francs for warehouse record keepers to 1,850 francs for cashiers. The salaries of female clerical employees ranged from 900 to 1,150 francs per month, the latter rate being paid to statistical-machine employees. The salaries of technical employees ranged from 1,475 to 2,150 francs per month. These salaries are subject to a 5-percent increase after 3 years' service in the same establishment and to another 5 percent after 10 years' service. The agreement fixes the minimum wage of engineers upon employment at 1,300 or 1,750 francs, accordingly as the employee is under or over 21 years of age, the minimum increasing to 2,100 francs after 2 years in the enterprise and 2,750 francs after 8 years in the enterprise or 10 years in the industry.

Minimum rates established by different collective agreements in public works and the building industry ranged from 6.00 to 7.50 francs per hour for all workers in excavation and public-works enterprises, with the exception of caisson workers, for whom the minimum rate was 12.00 francs per hour. In paving, cement work, masonry, carpentry, plumbing, and steel construction the rates ranged from 6.00 to 7.50 francs per hour, with the exception of laborers, who received from 5.50 to 5.75 francs. Drivers of automobiles and tractors received a daily wage varying from 51 to 70 francs, depending upon the type of machine.

Minimum wages were fixed by agreement in large stores and department stores and in one-price stores (*magasins á prix unique*). In the latter group the monthly salaries of men ranged from 700 francs at 17 years of age to 1,000 francs at 21 years, and of women from 625 to 825 francs at the same ages. In certain sections of the environs of the city these minimums are diminished by 5 to 10 percent. In the large stores the minimum monthly salaries of salesmen vary from 800 francs at 18 years of age to 1,275 francs at 24 years, while salaries of women vary from 750 francs at age 18 to 1,075 francs at the age of 23. The minimum wages of men employed in service and maintenance vary from 675 francs at 17 years of age to 1,175 francs at 24 years, while those of women engaged in the same classes of service vary from 675 francs at 17 years of age to 950 francs at 23 years. At the same ages the minimum monthly salaries of women in administrative services vary from 675 to 1,075 francs per month. In establishments in which employees receive meals, the price to be deducted from wages for breakfast is fixed at 6 francs. The increase in wages for employees in the large stores varies from 25 percent for annual salaries under 6,000 francs to 5 percent for salaries of 18,000 to 20,000 francs.

Wages in Palestine, at the End of 1936

THE prevailing daily wage rates in Palestine in the orange industry at the close of December 1936 ranged from 50 to 60 mils[1] for Arab women carrying baskets to from 600 to 1,200 mils for male Jewish chief packers. The highest prevailing wage rates in the manufacturing industries reported for the beginning of November 1936 were 640 to 720 mils for Jewish machine printers (newspapers), and the lowest rates were 35 to 70 mils for Arab woman leaf sorters in the tobacco and cigarette industry. The rates for various other occupations are recorded in table 1.[2] The rates for Jewish labor are based on 8 hours of work. The usual hours of Arab workers vary from 8 to 10, though for agricultural laborers they are 10 to 12 per day on cereal land and 8 to 10 per day on citrus plantations.

Table 1.—Prevailing Daily Rates of Wages in Various Occupations in Palestine, November 1936

[Average exchange rate of 100 mils, November 1936= about 49 cents]

Industry and occupation	Jewish labor		Arab labor	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Agriculture				
Plowing:	*Mils*	*Mils*	*Mils*	*Mils*
Dry farming	200–300		80–120	
Citrus belt	250		100–200	
Harvesting			90–150	60–80
Tree planting, permanent workers in orange groves	225–300		150–200	
Pruning		175		
Fruit picking (olives, vines, almonds)	150	150	80–100	60
General laborers:				
Dry farming	200–220		80–120	
Citrus belt	200	175	100–120	
Orange picking [1]	200	175	100–150	
Porterage: [1]				
Baskets	200		60	50–60
Cases	250–350		200–250	
Orange sorting: [1]				
First class		300–400	250–350	
Second class		200–300	200–250	
Orange wrapping [1]		200–300	200–250	
Orange packing: [1]				
Chief packers	600–1,200		650–800	
Assistants	300–800		300–450	
Manufacturing industries				
Stone quarrying and manufacture of building materials:				
Quarrymen, skilled	400–500		200–300	
Quarrymen, unskilled	330–400		100–160	
Silicate brickmakers (mixers, pressmen, furnacemen)	400–450			
Cement-brick makers:				
Machine work	450			
Manual work	325–400			
Tile makers (mixers, pressmen, designers)	325–450			
Mosaic workers:				
Molders and pressmen	450–650		220–380	
Polishers and finishers	300–450	300–350		
Unskilled and semiskilled laborers, tiles and mosaic	300–400		180–220	
Woodworking:				
Building carpenters, skilled	400–600		200–400	
Building carpenters, semiskilled	350–400			
Cabinetmakers, skilled	450–600		200–400	
Cabinetmakers, semiskilled	350–400		180–250	

[1] During orange-packing season. Rates given are for end of December 1936.

[1] Average exchange rate of 100 mils in November 1936=about 49 cents.

[2] Palestine. Office of Statistics. Wage Rate Statistics Bulletin No. 2: Statistics of Wage Rates in Palestine, 1936. Jerusalem, 1937.

Table 1.—Prevailing Daily Rates of Wages in Various Occupations in Palestine, November 1936—Continued

Industry and occupation	Jewish labor		Arab labor	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Manufacturing industries—Continued				
Woodworking machinists:	*Mils*	*Mils*	*Mils*	*Mils*
Carpentry	450–600			
Sawing	350–400			
Polishers, varnishers	250–450	200–450		
Motorcar-body builders (motorbus)	500–550			
Metalworking:				
Locksmiths, fitters	400–700		200–600	
Blacksmiths, forgers	350–700		200–600	
Founders	450–750			
Turners	400–750			
Semiskilled workers	200–400		150–200	
Printing and stationery:				
Linotype operators	480–700			
Hand compositors, newspaper	400–600		150–300	
Hand compositors, book and commercial work	320–450			
Machine printers, newspapers	640–720			
Machine printers, book and commercial work	400–600			
Bookbinders	240–440	180–275		
Cardboard-box makers:				
Adult workers		150–250	70–160	70–180
Child workers			40–100	40–100
Soap and oil:				
Oil pressing and refining	350–450		150–250	
Unskilled labor, oil mills			100	
Soap makers, skilled	350–450		150–300	
Soap packers		200–220		
Unskilled labor, soap factories			150	
Textiles:				
Cotton weaving:				
Weavers, machine	330–450			
Weavers, hand			60–100	
Winders, assistants		200–275		
Silk weaving:				
Weavers	400–600	250–275		
Winders, assistants		250		
Knitting (wool, silk, hosiery):				
Knitters	400–450	[1] 200–300		
Winders		175–300		
Sewers		200–300		
Finishers, repairers		175–300		
Manufacture of clothes:				
Tailors (ready-made clothes), machine	500			
Tailors (ready-made clothes), hand	400			
Finishers		200–250		
Shirt makers, machine		175–300		
Shirt makers, hand		100–125		
Leather:				
Tanners, machine	550			
Tanners, hand	375–550			
Shoe makers, machine	300–500			
Shoe makers, hand	300–500			
Stitchers	275–415			
Food industries:				
Bakers:				
Ovenmen	500–670			
Dough makers	420–585			
Assistant dough makers	250–545			
Chocolate makers and packers		175–250		
Aerated-water machine operators	400–640			
Bottlers, washers		250		
Tobacco and cigarettes:				
Cigarette makers' assistants	230–300		100	
Leaf sorters		150–180	70–105	35–70
Cigarette packers		170–250	65–105	80–150
Labelers		150–230		
Child workers in cigarette factories			50–100	50–100

[1] Silk knitters.

Substantial differences in the wage rates of Jewish and Arab labor in the construction industry at the beginning of November 1936 are shown in table 2. For example, the prevailing daily rates for Jewish

stone dressers (piece work) were 400 to 700 mils and for Arabs in the same occupation, 200 to 500 mils. The prevailing daily rates for unskilled Jewish building workers at that date were 300 to 400 mils and for Arabs in the same occupational group, 100 to 180 mils. The figures reported for Jewish building workers are union rates based on an 8-hour day. The prevailing daily hours of Arab building workers are 9 to 10.[2]

Table 2.—Prevailing Daily Rates in Construction Industry in Palestine, November 1936

[Average exchange rate of 100 mils in November 1936=about 49 cents]

Occupation	Jewish labor	Arab labor	Occupation	Jewish labor	Arab labor
	Mils	*Mils*		*Mils*	*Mils*
Stone dressers (piece work)	400–700	[1] 200–350	Painters, skilled	350–500	200–400
Masons, skilled	500–750	500–600	Painters, semiskilled	300–450	
Masons, semiskilled	425–500	200–400	Floor tilers, skilled	500–750	200–400
Carpenters, shutter work, skilled	500–750	----------	Floor tilers, semiskilled	425–500	
Carpenters, shutter work, semiskilled	425–500	----------	Plumbers, skilled	500–750	[2] 400–600
Concrete layers, skilled	500–600	----------	Plumbers, semiskilled	400–500	----------
Steel benders, skilled	500–750	[2] 400–500	Unskilled building laborers	300–400	100–180
Steel benders, semiskilled	425–500	----------	Unskilled road laborers in towns	330–400	----------
Plasterers, skilled	500–750	240–400	Unskilled road laborers in rural areas	200–250	----------
Plasterers, semiskilled	425–500				

[1] In Haifa up to 500 mils per day.
[2] Jerusalem.

The union rates of Jewish building workers are generally based on skill and experience. The term "skilled" in the above table corresponds to first- and second-class work and "semiskilled" to third-class work of the union scale.

[1] Palestine. Office of Statistics. Wage Rate Statistics Bulletin No. 2: Statistics of Wage Rates in Palestine, 1936. Jerusalem, 1937.

EMPLOYMENT OFFICES

Operations of the United States Employment Service, April 1937

CONTINUED gains in the placement of workers in private industry were reported by offices of the United States Employment Service during April. Following a steady increase since January 1936, total private placements made by employment offices in April rose to a 3-year high of 219,441. This total, which is 13.3 percent above the previous recent high reported in March, is nearly double the volume of private placements made in April 1936, 1 year ago.

Jobs filled in private industry included 141,161 placements of men and 78,280 placements of women. A much larger increase in the private placements of men was shown than for women. The placements of men increased almost 20 percent above the level for March, whereas those of women increased only 3.1 percent above the previous month's figure.

Employment offices throughout the country made a total of 348,927 placements of all types during April. This figure, which includes placements in governmental and public building projects work and a small number of placements on relief projects in addition to the private placements, was 18.6 percent above the level reported in March. Included were 268,896 placements of men and 80,031 placements of women.

The gain in private placements has been particularly noteworthy since early last fall when the public employment offices, following a special allocation of funds by the President, intensified efforts to place applicants in jobs in private industry. During the first 10 months of the present fiscal year beginning July 1, 1936, 1,635,616 placements have been made with private employers. This total is materially larger than the private placement total for any entire preceding fiscal year. During the first 4 months of 1937 almost three-quarters of a million placements with private employers have been made. The total of 715,196 private placements for the 4 months is over double the number reported in the same 4-month period in 1936. These gains in addition to reflecting improved business conditions, are in part the result of the intensive solicitation program carried on by the employment offices. During April, 189,477 field visits to employers were made, bringing to 722,615 the number of solicitations made during the 4 months of the present fiscal year.

Public employment accounted for 122,603 placements during April, a gain of 34.5 percent above the number reported in March. The employment in which these placements are made represents the normal activities of governmental units, Federal, State and local, and nonrelief projects operated by these units. While the work is paid from public funds, the placement of workers in this field represents virtually the same problem for public employment offices as the placement of workers in private industry. In a majority of instances, contractors operating on public projects or the authorities of the governmental units are not required to use the public employment offices, but secure workers through the public agencies because of satisfactory service rendered. Placements in this field included 121,547 men and 1,056 women.

Assignments of workers on relief projects at security wages numbered only 6,883 during the month.

More than one-quarter of a million new applications for employment were registered by the offices in April. Offices registered 288,037 new applicants, 196,494 men and 91,543 women. The aggregate total represented a slight increase above the number registered in March, but was moderately lower than the number of new applicants in either April 1936 or April 1935.

The monthly operating report of the United States Employment Service for March omitted the usual information concerning the number of active job seekers registered for employment at the end of the month due to the fact that public employment offices throughout the country were engaged in making a survey of all active job seekers at the month end. Field work for this survey has now been completed. Reports indicate that the number of active job seekers registered for employment on March 31 dropped to 5,490,482, a decline 10.2 percent from the number reported at the end of February. This is the lowest total ever reported during the history of the Employment Service. Declines were general throughout the country and were not confined to any single region.

The wide declines were a result of several causes, a careful survey discloses. Fundamentally, the decline was the cumulative result of the improvement in business conditions during the past several months as well as of seasonal improvement. Operating conditions during the winter months in many cases have prevented the reflection of improvement in general business conditions in the active file before this time. With the cessation of severe weather, it became possible for the offices to recontact applicants on a more general scale to determine their present availability for work and to remove the cards of nonavailable applicants from the active file. Furthermore, in connection with the April inventory study a more intensive effort was made to check the current accuracy of the files.

Another factor of great importance was the return of large numbers of applicants to their normal work with the advent of spring weather. This influence was especially marked in rural areas where farmers who had been registered for possible supplementary employment during the winter returned to their regular field of activity. Thus, while actual current improvement in business accounted for a large measure of the decline, and while general improvement in business was fundamentally responsible for the entire decline, the major portion of the drop is a result of accumulating betterment over a considerable period rather than a direct result of gains occurring from February to March alone.

During April the number of registrants in the active file increased slightly to a total of 5,519,755. The active job seekers included 4,357,155 men and 1,162,600 women.

Registration and placement of war veterans by offices in April show similar trends to those of nonveterans. The following table indicates the principal operating activity of veterans during the month.

Table 1.—Summary of Veterans' Activities, April 1937

Activities	Number	Percent of change from—		
		March 1937	April 1936	April 1935
New applications	10,689	−7.2	+1.2	−43.0
Total placements	22,401	+18.8	−33.5	−36.6
Private	11,305	+18.5	+97.2	+54.2
Public	10,564	+21.6	−46.7	−62.2
Relief	532	−16.2	−93.5	(1)
Active file	311,190	−.3	−40.3	−25.9

[1] Relief placements not reported for 1935.

The principal operating totals for April, and the percentage changes from the same month in preceding years and from March 1937 are shown in table 2. State-by-State reports of activities, together with the number of registrations and placements of men and women, are presented in table 3 and of veterans' activities in table 4, and a summary of the active file by States at the end of March (omitted from the previous report) in table 5.

Table 2.—Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1937

Activities	Number	Percent change from—		
		March 1937	April 1936	April 1935
New applications	288,037	+1.9	−4.2	−10.7
Total placements	348,927	+18.6	−23.3	+22.4
Private	219,441	+13.3	+97.9	+116.3
Public	122,603	+34.5	−39.1	−16.5
Relief	6,883	−27.5	−95.2	−81.3
Active file	5,519,755	+.5	−39.0	−12.6

Table 3.—Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1937

Total

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief [1]	Number	Percent of change from March	Apr. 30, 1937	Percent of change from Mar. 31, 1937
		Number	Percent of change from March	Number	Percent of change from March					
United States	348,927	219,441	+13.3	122,603	+34.5	6,883	288,037	+1.9	5,519,755	+0.5
Alabama	5,217	3,350	+9.4	1,856	−25.6	11	4,640	+51.3	75,844	+3.0
Arizona	2,064	1,016	+26.4	1,008	+9.3	40	1,470	−11.7	19,818	−3.7
Arkansas	3,495	1,266	−10.1	2,004	−3.7	225	3,370	−4.3	59,186	+5.8
California	23,843	16,111	+7.2	7,709	+9.3	23	23,055	−18.7	231,264	+5.9
Colorado	4,320	2,343	+25.9	1,937	+45.5	40	3,973	−6.4	58,846	+.7
Connecticut	4,067	2,890	+6.2	1,174	+125.3	3	3,868	−4.1	46,783	+3.8
Delaware	1,453	921	+25.6	525	+43.4	7	836	+34.2	10,913	+.8
Florida	7,334	4,366	−17.9	2,916	−10.8	52	4,741	+1.5	62,191	+2.5
Georgia	5,572	3,259	−5.9	2,293	+.3	20	4,119	−4.4	124,363	+2.9
Idaho	1,670	973	+34.4	673	+4.5	24	1,488	+26.4	19,416	+2.6
Illinois	25,592	20,708	+6.1	4,629	+32.9	255	22,482	−3.4	323,009	+7.2
Indiana	7,495	5,800	+9.1	1,680	+121.3	15	9,388	+3.0	126,484	+2.8
Iowa	8,759	5,663	+30.0	2,864	+136.1	232	5,360	+2.3	64,294	+3.1
Kansas	5,984	2,254	+79.2	3,720	+156.7	10	3,686	+70.9	72,703	−3.2
Kentucky	5,592	3,496	−17.5	2,093	+41.4	3	5,529	+11.7	148,335	+3.5
Louisiana	2,298	1,585	+29.0	707	−20.6	6	3,926	−10.1	81,216	+3.1
Maine	971	339	+43.6	632	+85.9	0	867	+35.7	25,380	+2.8
Maryland	3,202	1,706	+29.6	1,445	+84.8	51	2,508	−9.8	54,559	−7.0
Massachusetts	3,735	2,208	−0.0	1,465	+114.2	62	5,217	−10.4	296,392	+.7
Michigan	10,954	8,478	+13.4	1,841	+62.5	635	9,021	−10.9	139,635	−.1
Minnesota	8,556	6,366	+40.4	2,147	+60.3	43	6,825	+12.5	131,588	−2.1
Mississippi	4,736	93	−48.9	4,633	+13.4	10	4,114	+39.3	83,959	−.1
Missouri	8,933	4,477	+17.0	4,422	+89.5	34	7,228	−.7	207,167	+.3
Montana	2,240	850	+13.2	1,379	+93.7	11	1,413	+34.3	34,376	+1.1
Nebraska	4,615	1,897	+39.3	2,706	+74.8	12	3,290	+9.9	46,400	+1.3
Nevada	1,468	452	+25.9	1,016	+14.4	0	951	−1.2	4,942	−7.7
New Hampshire	1,206	765	+42.7	439	+32.2	2	849	+1.7	21,138	−1.0
New Jersey	6,188	4,832	+10.5	1,322	+94.4	34	8,410	+2.7	210,035	−1.2
New Mexico	2,097	728	+73.7	1,332	+54.3	37	1,161	+22.6	33,160	+2.4
New York	27,342	19,223	+2.2	7,975	+21.6	144	22,987	−4.3	391,324	−5.4
North Carolina	9,744	5,151	+16.6	4,590	+29.7	3	6,695	+8.5	89,199	−2.2
North Dakota	2,544	1,502	+29.7	955	+137.0	87	1,882	+63.8	33,725	−2.1
Ohio	23,430	18,296	+13.9	4,619	+81.3	515	15,487	−.7	301,356	+.9
Oklahoma	8,494	5,780	+38.8	2,685	+30.4	29	4,401	+2.2	118,190	+1.9
Oregon	2,977	1,536	+4.8	1,420	−.8	21	3,014	−2.7	49,586	+5.5
Pennsylvania	19,726	9,133	+12.6	8,087	+55.3	2,506	16,599	−5.5	797,397	−2.4
Rhode Island	1,311	812	+6.4	457	+11.7	42	1,617	−5.4	38,284	+1.6
South Carolina	5,222	2,145	−11.9	3,023	+41.3	54	2,452	−.6	52,604	−.1
South Dakota	2,735	1,279	+69.2	1,425	+105.3	31	1,598	+1.1	50,539	+.8
Tennessee	4,944	1,913	+8.0	3,030	+11.1	1	5,222	+7.2	173,310	+1.6
Texas	33,310	24,054	+34.0	8,411	−3.2	845	24,353	+25.2	194,803	+6.1
Utah	1,930	944	+29.5	958	+17.7	28	1,183	+35.5	19,454	−2.3
Vermont	891	620	+21.3	271	+105.3	0	708	+28.0	6,684	+10.8
Virginia	7,112	3,268	+23.8	3,798	+102.0	46	4,812	+19.3	66,581	−4.2
Washington	6,009	2,981	+5.3	2,759	+42.5	269	4,937	+10.6	75,496	+2.8
West Virginia	3,947	2,387	−1.8	1,552	−1.8	8	3,104	+10.2	93,291	−.6
Wisconsin	8,578	6,169	+16.6	2,226	+60.0	183	9,587	+9.2	121,146	−3.5
Wyoming	2,404	684	+39.9	1,546	+72.5	174	1,000	+27.2	7,949	−4.7
District of Columbia	2,621	2,372	+5.4	249	+59.6	0	2,605	−8.7	25,441	+4.6

[1] Includes only security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

Table 3.—Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1937—Contd.

Men

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief [1]	Number	Percent of change from March	Apr. 30, 1937	Percent of change from Mar. 31, 1937
		Number	Percent of change from March	Number	Percent of change from March					
United States	268,896	141,161	+19.9	121,547	+35.1	6,188	196,494	+2.2	4,357,155	+0.1
Alabama	4,549	2,692	+10.0	1,846	−25.2	11	3,283	+63.4	55,551	+2.3
Arizona	1,680	635	+37.1	1,005	+9.2	40	1,144	−17.5	16,309	−4.4
Arkansas	3,010	797	−8.7	1,989	−3.9	224	2,641	−.1	47,842	+5.9
California	18,681	10,996	+12.2	7,664	+10.0	21	15,329	−25.4	172,717	+4.8
Colorado	3,480	1,522	+42.9	1,923	+45.7	35	2,718	−4.3	46,445	−.8
Connecticut	2,852	1,682	+19.4	1,167	+128.8	3	2,359	−1.4	36,366	+2.0
Delaware	1,006	568	+46.0	521	+42.3	7	447	+7.2	8,271	−2.0
Florida	6,328	3,381	−14.9	2,904	−10.9	43	3,118	−4.9	47,265	+1.7
Georgia	4,984	2,684	−4.6	2,280	+.1	20	2,894	−2.3	87,877	+2.1
Idaho	1,293	605	+29.0	666	+4.1	22	1,154	+28.9	16,964	+2.7
Illinois	17,489	12,716	+15.7	4,564	+33.9	209	14,873	−2.3	263,460	+6.6
Indiana	4,992	3,305	+17.2	1,674	+121.4	13	6,683	+4.7	102,584	+3.0
Iowa	6,691	3,631	+49.5	2,830	+139.0	230	3,672	+6.1	52,829	+2.7
Kansas	5,414	1,689	+101.3	3,715	+157.6	10	2,646	+80.6	58,648	−3.9
Kentucky	4,463	2,397	−19.7	2,064	+41.8	2	3,728	+11.3	118,303	+2.9
Louisiana	1,616	913	+37.1	698	−19.9	5	2,542	−7.1	64,811	+2.2
Maine	758	128	+15.3	630	+86.4	0	632	+46.6	22,631	+3.9
Maryland	2,738	1,250	+39.4	1,441	+85.0	47	1,826	−6.2	44,349	−4.8
Massachusetts	2,671	1,175	+10.3	1,447	+117.3	49	3,499	−7.5	218,810	+.5
Michigan	8,363	6,041	+25.4	1,808	+63.8	514	6,494	−12.5	118,490	−.7
Minnesota	5,888	3,716	+59.1	2,131	+61.4	41	4,578	+19.4	108,623	−2.5
Mississippi	4,681	40	−70.4	4,632	+13.5	9	3,631	+39.3	61,378	−.4
Missouri	7,338	2,912	+29.2	4,412	+90.2	14	4,907	−.6	168,238	−.1
Montana	2,068	690	+20.4	1,367	+95.3	11	1,109	+48.7	28,769	+1.6
Nebraska	3,835	1,134	+51.8	2,692	+75.0	9	2,235	+12.9	38,582	−.5
Nevada	1,418	405	+39.7	1,013	+14.3	0	827	−2.7	4,155	−10.9
New Hampshire	957	521	+61.3	435	+33.0	1	541	−6.6	16,721	−1.7
New Jersey	3,662	2,327	+16.8	1,302	+94.6	33	5,470	+1.1	170,746	−.8
New Mexico	1,900	539	+82.1	1,325	+54.4	36	863	+22.6	27,944	+2.0
New York	17,973	9,953	+13.6	7,898	+22.1	122	14,632	−5.1	316,089	−5.0
North Carolina	7,633	3,065	+24.0	4,566	+30.3	2	4,620	+13.6	66,981	−3.0
North Dakota	2,086	1,073	+32.6	927	+142.7	86	1,423	+88.2	27,850	−1.6
Ohio	15,777	10,698	+15.6	4,573	+82.9	506	10,179	−.8	239,653	+1.0
Oklahoma	6,752	4,070	+41.7	2,656	+31.1	26	3,061	+3.4	97,406	+2.4
Oregon	2,524	1,092	+4.1	1,413	−.4	19	2,059	−10.1	40,881	+4.5
Pennsylvania	15,265	5,220	+14.9	7,877	+58.3	2,168	10,691	−3.6	628,622	−2.8
Rhode Island	871	395	+20.1	457	+12.0	19	957	−8.7	28,024	+.4
South Carolina	4,733	1,673	−14.5	3,016	+41.4	44	1,843	−1.4	35,552	−.6
South Dakota	2,450	1,020	+92.5	1,409	+108.4	21	1,121	−1.1	43,308	+.3
Tennessee	4,088	1,057	+11.7	3,030	+11.4	1	3,657	+7.3	136,094	+1.3
Texas	28,029	18,834	+33.1	8,358	−3.0	837	17,308	+22.0	145,126	+5.7
Utah	1,620	645	+26.0	947	+18.5	28	819	+33.6	17,133	−2.8
Vermont	627	359	+34.5	268	+111.0	0	468	+54.5	5,449	+10.8
Virginia	5,964	2,152	+40.7	3,775	+102.1	37	3,543	+27.4	48,549	−4.6
Washington	5,497	2,490	+10.0	2,744	+43.8	263	3,762	+11.4	64,637	+2.2
West Virginia	3,003	1,458	−2.5	1,538	−.9	7	1,993	+17.0	76,616	−.8
Wisconsin	5,897	3,515	+31.0	2,209	+61.7	173	6,184	+13.3	95,577	−4.1
Wyoming	2,084	392	+75.0	1,522	+72.4	170	786	+35.1	6,491	−6.7
District of Columbia	1,128	909	+9.1	219	+59.9	0	1,505	−8.8	17,439	+2.7

[1] Includes only security-wage placement on work-relief projects.

Table 3.—Operations of United States Employment Service, April 1937—Contd.

Women

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief [1]	Number	Percent of change from March	Apr. 30, 1937	Percent of change from Mar. 31, 1937
		Number	Percent of change from March	Number	Percent of change from March					
United States	80,031	78,280	+3.1	1,056	−11.2	695	91,543	+1.4	1,162,600	+1.8
Alabama	668	658	+6.8	10	−63.0	0	1,357	+28.3	20,293	+5.1
Arizona	384	381	+11.7	3	+50.0	0	326	+17.3	3,509	−.7
Arkansas	485	469	−12.5	15	+15.4	1	729	−17.1	11,344	+5.6
California	5,162	5,115	−2.2	45	−48.9	2	7,726	−.8	58,547	+9.1
Colorado	840	821	+3.1	14	+27.3	5	1,255	−10.5	12,401	+7.1
Connecticut	1,215	1,208	−7.9	7	−36.4	0	1,469	−8.2	10,417	+10.6
Delaware	357	353	+2.6	4	0	0	389	+88.8	2,642	+10.5
Florida	1,006	985	−26.9	12	+9.1	9	1,623	+16.4	14,926	+5.0
Georgia	588	575	−11.4	13	+62.5	0	1,225	−9.1	36,486	+4.9
Idaho	377	368	+44.3	7	+75.0	2	334	+18.4	2,452	+2.3
Illinois	8,103	7,992	−6.3	65	−13.3	46	7,609	−5.3	59,549	+10.0
Indiana	2,503	2,495	0	6	+100.0	2	2,705	−1.0	23,900	+2.0
Iowa	2,068	2,032	+5.4	34	+17.2	2	1,688	−5.3	11,465	+4.9
Kansas	570	565	+34.8	5	−28.6	0	1,040	+50.3	14,055	−0
Kentucky	1,129	1,099	−12.1	29	+20.8	1	1,291	+12.6	30,032	+6.0
Louisiana	682	672	+19.4	9	−52.6	1	1,384	−15.2	16,405	+6.9
Maine	213	211	+68.8	2	0	0	233	+13.0	2,749	−5.2
Maryland	464	456	+8.8	4	+33.3	4	682	−18.3	10,210	−15.3
Massachusetts	1,064	1,033	−9.7	18	0	13	1,718	−15.7	77,582	+1.3
Michigan	2,591	2,437	−8.3	33	+13.8	121	2,527	−6.6	21,145	+3.2
Minnesota	2,668	2,650	+20.6	16	−15.8	2	2,247	+.5	22,965	−.6
Mississippi	55	53	+12.8	1	−85.7	1	483	+39.2	22,581	+.7
Missouri	1,595	1,565	−.5	10	−23.1	20	2,321	−.9	38,929	+2.3
Montana	172	160	−10.1	12	0	0	304	−.7	5,607	−1.7
Nebraska	780	763	+24.1	14	+40.0	3	1,064	+4.2	7,818	+11.2
Nevada	50	47	−31.9	3	+50.0	0	124	+9.7	787	+14.1
New Hampshire	249	244	+14.6	4	−20.0	1	308	+20.3	4,417	+1.6
New Jersey	2,526	2,505	+5.2	20	+81.8	1	2,940	+5.8	39,289	−2.8
New Mexico	197	189	+53.7	7	+40.0	1	298	+22.6	5,216	+4.3
New York	9,369	9,270	−7.8	77	−15.4	22	8,355	−2.7	75,235	−7.4
North Carolina	2,111	2,086	+7.2	24	−27.3	1	2,075	−1.3	28,218	−.5
North Dakota	458	429	+22.9	28	+33.3	1	459	+16.8	5,875	−4.6
Ohio	7,653	7,598	+11.6	46	−4.2	9	5,308	−.5	61,703	+.9
Oklahoma	1,742	1,710	+32.5	29	−12.1	3	1,340	−.4	20,784	−.3
Oregon	453	444	+6.7	7	−46.2	2	955	+18.0	8,705	+10.2
Pennsylvania	4,461	3,913	+9.6	210	−9.1	338	5,908	−8.6	168,775	−.7
Rhode Island	440	417	−3.9	0	--------	23	660	−.2	10,260	+5.0
South Carolina	489	472	−1.5	7	0	10	609	+1.8	17,052	+.9
South Dakota	285	259	+14.6	16	−11.1	10	477	+6.7	7,231	+4.1
Tennessee	856	856	+3.8	0	0	0	1,565	+6.9	37,216	+2.7
Texas	5,281	5,220	+37.0	53	−27.4	8	7,045	+33.9	49,677	+7.3
Utah	310	299	+37.8	11	−26.7	0	364	+40.0	2,321	+3.4
Vermont	264	261	+7.0	3	−40.0	0	240	−4.0	1,235	+10.8
Virginia	1,148	1,116	+.5	23	+91.7	9	1,269	+1.3	18,032	−3.2
Washington	512	491	−13.4	15	−46.4	6	1,175	+8.1	10,839	+6.8
West Virginia	944	929	−.6	14	−50.0	1	1,111	−.1	16,675	+1.1
Wisconsin	2,681	2,654	+1.8	17	−32.0	10	3,403	+2.3	25,569	+1.1
Wyoming	320	292	+10.2	24	+84.6	4	214	+4.9	1,458	−5.0
District of Columbia	1,493	1,463	+3.2	30	+57.9	0	1,100	−8.6	8,002	+8.9

[1] Includes only security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

Table 4.—Veterans' Activities of United States Employment Service, April 1937

State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total	Private		Public		Relief [1]	Number	Percent of change from March	Apr. 30, 1937	Percent of change from Mar. 31, 1937
		Number	Percent of change from March	Number	Percent of change from March					
United States	22,401	11,305	+18.5	10,564	+21.6	532	10,689	−7.2	311,190	−0.3
Alabama	332	193	−19.6	138	−28.5	1	146	+5.8	3,501	+2.5
Arizona	144	44	+15.8	91	−6.2	9	93	−30.6	1,222	−1.3
Arkansas	199	67	+4.7	109	−28.8	23	159	+1.3	2,868	+7.2
California	2,266	1,245	+10.9	1,017	+3.5	4	1,280	−28.4	16,670	+4.7
Colorado	330	136	+25.9	190	+6.7	4	160	−14.4	3,305	−.7
Connecticut	249	150	−5.7	99	+94.1	0	155	+3.3	3,261	+1.7
Delaware	81	43	+10.3	38	+58.3	0	14	−17.6	555	−4.3
Florida	397	223	−18.9	169	−43.1	5	208	−11.5	4,779	+1.0
Georgia	321	184	+5.1	135	+10.7	2	115	+.9	4,362	+3.6
Idaho	177	62	−1.6	113	+36.1	2	78	+41.8	1,193	−1.8
Illinois	1,489	1,022	+16.7	459	+9.0	8	796	−10.3	19,857	+6.6
Indiana	422	236	−8.2	186	+109.6	0	383	−4.0	8,322	+2.4
Iowa	896	482	+20.2	349	+115.4	65	230	−2.1	4,411	−3.2
Kansas	500	200	+55.0	300	+93.5	0	154	+43.9	4,507	−3.3
Kentucky	459	241	−15.7	218	+12.4	0	165	−9.3	6,766	+2.6
Louisiana	145	89	0	55	−26.7	1	125	−19.9	4,616	+2.9
Maine	85	17	+88.9	68	+83.8	0	47	+80.8	1,944	+2.2
Maryland	232	106	+11.6	124	+93.8	2	125	+2.5	3,561	−9.0
Massachusetts	227	77	−23.0	147	+93.4	3	276	−4.2	19,245	+.8
Michigan	684	485	+23.7	167	+44.0	32	456	−18.0	8,762	+1.3
Minnesota	499	267	+73.4	231	+33.5	1	228	+6.0	9,505	−7.5
Mississippi	165	2	−80.0	162	+22.7	1	80	+3.9	2,573	−1.5
Missouri	681	263	+50.3	417	+63.5	1	361	+7.4	12,623	−.4
Montana	249	66	+69.2	182	+73.3	1	70	+29.6	1,709	−.6
Nebraska	298	98	+46.3	199	+43.2	1	118	−4.1	2,809	−.1
Nevada	147	39	0	108	+.9	0	64	+18.5	272	−19.5
New Hampshire	82	42	+44.8	40	+29.0	0	34	−33.3	1,390	−.3
New Jersey	303	185	+21.7	88	+100.0	30	258	−.8	12,680	−1.0
New Mexico	146	45	+40.6	94	+23.7	7	46	+43.8	1,933	+4.1
New York	1,266	608	+14.1	650	+37.1	8	440	+1.6	21,983	−6.3
North Carolina	510	252	+28.6	258	+11.2	0	164	−18.4	3,261	−3.5
North Dakota	130	63	+57.5	63	+61.5	4	43	+4.9	1,616	−2.3
Ohio	1,505	972	+17.8	513	+68.2	20	498	−14.7	17,058	+.3
Oklahoma	566	354	+39.4	209	−3.7	3	170	+4.9	5,895	+1.8
Oregon	272	123	+24.2	148	−23.7	1	200	+18.7	4,633	+4.6
Pennsylvania	1,266	428	+35.0	670	+46.6	168	525	−20.6	40,221	−3.0
Rhode Island	62	35	0	27	−48.1	0	51	+10.9	2,000	−3.6
South Carolina	254	91	−5.2	158	+35.0	5	59	−18.1	1,989	−1.8
South Dakota	212	100	+170.3	111	+91.4	1	51	+8.5	2,980	+.5
Tennessee	316	97	+36.6	219	+8.4	0	278	+35.6	6,957	+1.9
Texas	1,578	788	+35.9	733	−7.3	57	631	−3.5	8,869	+5.4
Utah	174	72	+16.1	101	+26.3	1	37	+76.2	1,315	−3.2
Vermont	36	26	+100.0	10	+66.7	0	23	+109.1	328	+26.6
Virginia	415	181	+43.7	231	+47.1	3	160	+11.1	2,452	−7.5
Washington	467	234	+20.0	218	+15.3	15	247	+23.5	5,464	+1.1
West Virginia	242	126	+6.8	115	−32.4	1	115	+13.9	4,646	−.6
Wisconsin	566	300	+55.4	234	+41.8	32	361	+7.4	7,753	−3.8
Wyoming	175	21	+23.5	144	+24.1	10	60	+36.4	495	−10.5
District of Columbia	184	125	+4.2	59	+11.3	0	152	−11.6	2,074	+10.3

[1] Includes only security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

Table 5.—United States Employment Service Active File as of Mar. 31, 1937

State	Total	Men	Women	Veterans
United States	5,495,209	4,352,612	1,142,597	312,106
Alabama	73,630	54,313	19,317	3,414
Arizona	20,586	17,053	3,533	1,238
Arkansas	55,932	45,185	10,747	2,676
California	218,458	164,811	53,647	15,927
Colorado	58,422	46,841	11,581	3,328
Connecticut	45,085	35,667	9,418	3,205
Delaware	10,831	8,439	2,392	580
Florida	60,679	46,470	14,209	4,734
Georgia	120,847	86,074	34,773	4,210
Idaho	18,916	16,518	2,398	1,215
Illinois	301,238	247,105	54,133	18,623
Indiana	123,012	99,576	23,436	8,128
Iowa	62,390	51,461	10,929	4,555
Kansas	75,092	61,032	14,060	4,661
Kentucky	143,281	114,948	28,333	6,595
Louisiana	78,783	63,432	15,351	4,488
Maine	24,686	21,787	2,899	1,903
Maryland	58,656	46,597	12,059	3,914
Massachusetts	294,401	217,818	76,583	19,092
Michigan	139,778	119,284	20,494	8,649
Minnesota	134,459	111,354	23,105	10,277
Mississippi	84,035	61,601	22,434	2,613
Missouri	206,513	168,449	38,064	12,674
Montana	34,011	28,308	5,703	1,719
Nebraska	45,819	38,790	7,029	2,811
Nevada	5,352	4,662	690	338
New Hampshire	21,357	17,009	4,348	1,394
New Jersey	212,496	172,068	40,428	12,813
New Mexico	32,391	27,388	5,003	1,856
New York	413,844	332,640	81,204	23,452
North Carolina	91,225	62,877	28,348	3,379
North Dakota	34,465	28,307	6,158	1,654
Ohio	298,531	237,367	61,164	17,005
Oklahoma	115,936	95,080	20,856	5,788
Oregon	47,011	39,113	7,898	4,430
Pennsylvania	816,818	646,846	169,972	41,478
Rhode Island	38,210	28,263	9,947	2,078
South Carolina	52,657	35,756	16,901	2,026
South Dakota	50,118	43,175	6,943	2,965
Tennessee	170,647	134,408	36,239	6,824
Texas	183,604	137,308	46,296	8,415
Utah	19,914	17,625	2,289	1,359
Vermont	6,033	4,918	1,115	259
Virginia	69,511	50,891	18,620	2,652
Washington	73,475	63,257	10,218	5,403
West Virginia	93,868	77,247	16,621	4,674
Wisconsin	125,482	99,641	25,841	8,057
Wyoming	8,345	6,957	1,388	553
District of Columbia	24,379	16,896	7,483	2,025

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Summary of Reports for April 1937

EXPANSION in some branches of industrial activity in April resulted in a further rise in employment and pay rolls in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries surveyed each month by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In the aggregate, approximately 100,000 workers were added to pay rolls between the middle of March and the middle of April and weekly wage disbursements showed an increase of $8,500,000. Both the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries shared in these gains, but the major portions were registered by the manufacturing industries.

With a single exception (January 1937), employment in the combined industries covered has increased each month since February 1936. In April 1937 there were nearly 1,500,000 more workers on the pay rolls than in the corresponding month of last year. With two exceptions (July 1936 and January 1937), weekly wage disbursements of the combined industries have increased each month since January 1936 and in April were $72,000,000 greater than a year ago.

The number of workers employed by railroads also increased in April. Preliminary reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission indicate that, excluding executives, officials, and staff assistants, 29,306 more workers were employed by class I railroads in April than in the month preceding.

Employment in the regular agencies of the Federal Government in April was somewhat higher than in the month preceding—the executive, judicial, legislative, and military branches all showing small gains. On construction projects financed wholly or partially from public funds the trend of employment was mixed. Increases were reported in the number of workers employed on construction projects financed by regular governmental appropriations, the Public Works Administration, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, and on Federal projects under The Works Program. Employment on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration in April, on the other hand, was below the March level as a result of the completion of emergency flood-control projects. The number of workers employed on the Emergency Conservation Program increased during the month due to the beginning of a new enlistment period.

Industrial and Business Employment

THE increase over the month interval of nearly 94,000 wage earners, or 1.1 percent, in factory employment raised the April index of factory employment to 102.2, the highest point reached since November 1929. Weekly factory pay rolls advanced even more sharply than employment (3.8 percent or approximately $7,600,000). The increase brought the April pay-roll index to 104.9, which is above the level of any month since October 1929.

Numerous wage-rate increases were a primary factor in the large pay-roll gains, 2,083 manufacturing establishments having reported increases that affected 1,140,982 wage earners during the period March 16 to April 15. As these figures relate only to firms which supply monthly data for inclusion in the published summaries, and the survey covers only approximately 55 percent of all factory workers, it is clear that they do not represent all the wage-rate increases that occurred during the month.

The factory employment and pay-roll gains over the month interval were more heavily concentrated in the durable-goods industries than in the nondurable-goods industries. For the durable-goods group the net increases were 2.4 percent in employment and 6.4 percent in pay rolls. The nondurable-goods group as a whole showed a decline of 0.1 percent in employment and a gain of 0.3 percent in pay rolls. The April index of employment for the durable-goods group (98.7) stands above that of any month since November 1929. The employment index for the nondurable-goods group (106.0) is—with four exceptions in 1929, one exception in 1927, and one exception in 1937—above the level of any month since January 1923.

Compared with a year ago factory employment has increased 14.7 percent and weekly wage disbursements in manufacturing establishments have increased 32.3 percent. These percentage increases represent more than 1,100,000 wage earners and nearly $52,000,000 in weekly pay rolls.

Fifty-seven of the 89 manufacturing industries surveyed showed gains in employment over the month interval and 64 industries reported increased pay rolls. Some of the more pronounced increases in employment were seasonal. Among the manufacturing industries reporting important seasonal gains in employment were canning (23.7 percent), beet sugar (13.3 percent), fertilizers (11.5 percent), brick-tile-terra cotta (8.0 percent), ice cream (7.2 percent), marble-slate-granite (6.7 percent), cement (5.3 percent), paints and varnishes (2.7 percent), and beverages (2.2 percent). Cane-sugar refining showed an increase of 9.9 percent; steam-and electric-railroad car building, 6.9 percent; locomotive, 5.9 percent; and agricultural implements, 4.6 percent. Employment in the copper-lead-zinc smelting and refining industry increased 4.3 percent and the automobile industry reported

an increase of 4.0 percent. Other employment gains in industries of major importance were: Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies (3.1 percent), blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills (2.6 percent), foundries and machine-shop products (2.6 percent), steam-railroad repair shops (1.8 percent), paper and pulp (1.3 percent), chemicals (1.2 percent), petroleum refining (1.3 percent), and cotton goods (0.6 percent). Employment in the machine-tool industry, which is a barometer of orders placed for power-driven metal-cutting machinery, continued the expansion which has been shown each month, with but one exception (August 1936), since October 1934. The gain in this industry of 2.7 percent from March to April raised the April employment index to 146.7, which is the maximum recorded since March 1930 and indicates a gain of 339 percent from the low point (33.4) registered in April 1933.

Seasonal curtailment of operations between March and April resulted in employment decreases of 14.6 percent in cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal; 8.7 percent in millinery; 5.8 percent in confectionery; and 3.3 percent in boots and shoes. Smaller declines were reported in slaughtering and meat packing, men's clothing, woolen and worsted goods, and book and job printing. Employment in rubber boots and shoes decreased 5.3 percent over the month interval, largely because of a strike, and in women's clothing employment declined 4.8 percent. Decreases ranging from 2.7 percent to 3.1 percent were also reported for the shirt and collar, fur-felt hat, soap, and radio and phonograph industries.

Although there was an increase from March to April of 78,000 workers in 12 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed, the decreases in the remaining 4 industries reduced the net gain to 7,000. Pay-roll gains were reported by 14 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries, the net increase in weekly wages being $890,000. The outstanding decrease in employment was in bituminous-coal mining (61,000 workers or 15.5 percent), reflecting reduced operations pending completion of new wage agreements, a holiday, and curtailment of production because of accumulated stocks. The reduction of forces in wholesale trade, laundries, and insurance was relatively small. Seasonal employment gains were reported in private building construction (9.8 percent), quarrying and nonmetallic mining (8.1 percent), and dyeing and cleaning (4.8 percent). Anthracite mining reported increases of 10.5 percent in employment and 68.9 percent in pay rolls. Metal mines continued to add more workers to their pay rolls, the gain over the month interval being 4.2 percent. The April employment index for this industry is 76.2 (taking the year 1929 as 100) and exceeds the level of any month since October 1930. The gain from the low point of August 1932 was 166 percent. Year-round hotels reported a gain of 1.8 percent in employment, the April index (88.4) standing at the highest level since May 1931. Reports received from

16,499 wholesale-trade establishments employing 344,048 workers in April indicated a net decline in employment of 0.2 percent, the decrease being due primarily to sharp seasonal recessions in the farm products and the agent and broker groups. Among the more important lines of wholesale trade showing gains over the month interval were food products (1.8 percent), machinery, equipment, and supplies (1.1 percent), electrical goods (1.1 percent), hardware (0.8 percent), furniture and house furnishings (0.2 percent), automotive dealers (0.2 percent), and groceries (0.1 percent). Among the lines in which declines were shown were dry goods and apparel (1.7 percent) and chemicals and drugs (0.3 percent).

Employment in 54,857 retail establishments reporting 941,618 workers in April rose 0.4 percent over the month interval, the decrease of 0.7 percent in the general-merchandising group (department, variety, and general-merchandising stores and mail-order houses) having been offset by gains in other lines of retail trade. Among the lines in which increases were shown from March to April were cigar stores (3.8 percent), lumber and building materials (3.3 percent), hardware (2.1 percent), drugs (1.8 percent), automotive (1.5 percent), food (1.2 percent), and furniture (0.7 percent). The wood-coal-ice group reported a seasonal recession of 6.6 percent.

In addition to the increases reported by manufacturing establishments, approximately 165,000 workers in reporting establishments of nonmanufacturing industries received wage-rate increases. The major portion of these nonmanufacturing employees were in the bituminous-coal mining industry.

Class I railroads employed 1,118,067 workers (exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants) in April, according to a preliminary report by the Interstate Commerce Commission. This was 2.7 percent above the number reported for March (1,088,761). Corresponding pay-roll figures for April were not available at the time this report was prepared. The March pay roll, however, amounted to $161,551,803 in comparison with the February total of $147,207,372, a gain of 9.7 percent.

Hours and earnings.—Based on data supplied by cooperating manufacturing establishings for full- and part-time workers combined, the average hours worked per week by factory wage earners in April were 40.4 or 1.6 percent below the March average. April hourly earnings, however, were 63.7 cents or 4.0 percent above the March figure. Average weekly earnings rose 2.6 percent over the month interval to $26.30.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available, 7 reported gains in average hours worked per week and 13 showed increases in average hourly earnings. Higher average weekly earnings were reported by 13 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed.

Table 1 presents a summary of employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in April 1937 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals except in the few industries for which certain items cannot be computed. The indexes of employment and pay rolls for the manufacturing industries are based on the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100, and for the nonmanufacturing industries on the 12-month average of 1929 as 100. The information for the manufacturing industries, mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction covers wage earners only. For crude-petroleum producing it covers wage earners and clerical field force. The figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance cover all employees, including executives.

Table 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, April 1937 (Preliminary Figures)

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index April 1937	Percentage change from—		Index April 1937	Percentage change from—		Average in April 1937	Percentage change from—	
		March 1937	April 1936		March 1937	April 1936		March 1937	April 1936
	(*1923–25=100*)			(*1923–25=100*)					
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	102.2	+1.1	+14.7	104.9	+3.8	+32.3	$26.30	+2.6	+13.3
Class I steam railroads [2]	63.3	+2.6	+7.7	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	(*1929=100*)			(*1929=100*)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	54.0	+10.5	+8.5	63.9	+68.9	+122.9	34.40	+52.8	+105.8
Bituminous	72.6	−15.5	−6.3	54.4	−38.5	−13.1	19.06	−27.3	−7.3
Metalliferous mining	76.2	+4.2	+32.4	76.9	+8.9	+69.1	32.06	+4.5	+27.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	53.1	+8.1	+9.7	48.1	+16.3	+33.1	22.70	+7.5	+21.6
Crude-petroleum producing	76.0	+2.4	+6.5	67.5	+6.0	+18.3	33.08	+3.6	+11.0
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	76.6	+1.6	+8.1	86.1	−1.0	+13.3	30.18	−2.6	+4.8
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	92.9	+.8	+5.5	95.2	+.8	+10.5	33.18	+[4]	+4.8
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance	72.9	+.3	+2.3	69.4	+.2	+5.2	31.25	−.1	+2.8
Trade:									
Wholesale	91.9	−.2	+7.2	75.4	+.6	+11.0	29.33	+.8	+3.6
Retail	88.8	+.4	+4.2	71.9	+1.9	+10.1	21.72	+1.5	+5.5
General merchandising	99.6	−.7	+2.2	89.0	+1.8	+9.5	18.61	+2.3	+7.4
Other than general merchandising	86.0	+.8	+4.9	68.3	+2.0	+9.9	24.24	+1.2	+4.8
Hotels (year-round) [5]	88.4	+1.8	+6.3	74.5	+2.5	+12.4	14.59	+.8	+5.8
Laundries	88.5	−.3	+6.3	78.5	+1.3	+10.7	16.79	+1.6	+4.1
Dyeing and cleaning	84.9	+4.8	+3.9	68.8	+11.5	+7.3	19.94	+6.4	+3.3
Brokerage	[3]	+.3	+6.3	[3]	+.6	+11.0	39.17	+.3	+4.3
Insurance	[3]	−.1	+1.1	[3]	+.2	+5.1	39.24	+.3	+3.9
Building construction	[3]	+9.8	+17.3	[3]	+16.3	+37.1	29.60	+6.0	+16.9

[1] Revised indexes—adjusted to Census of Manufactures totals for 1933.
[2] Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[5] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

EMPLOYMENT reports on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds indicated an increase of 19,000 in the number employed in April compared with March. The total number of workers employed during April on these projects was 192,000. Increases were shown in the number of workers employed on Federal and non-Federal projects financed from funds provided by the National Industrial Recovery Act and on projects financed from funds provided by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935 and 1936. Pay-roll disbursements for April on all projects financed by the Public Works Administration totaled $15,242,000.

The seasonal increase in employment on construction projects financed from regular governmental appropriations continued in April. During the month more than 132,000 workers were employed, an increase of 12,000, or 10.4 percent, compared with March. Increases in employment occurred on electrification, naval vessels, public roads, reclamation, streets and roads, and miscellaneous projects. The number of workers employed on forestry projects remained the same and the number of workers on building construction, river, harbor, and flood control, and water and sewerage projects decreased. Pay-roll disbursements for all types of projects totaled $13,856,000.

More than 8,000 workers were employed on projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in April. Compared with March, this was an increase of 6.9 percent in the number working. Small decreases in employment on building construction and miscellaneous projects were offset by increases in the level of employment for reclamation and water and sewerage projects. Employment on bridges remained virtually the same. Total pay rolls on all types of projects amounted to $1,041,000.

The number of wage earners employed on projects financed by The Works Program during April was 2,982,000, an increase of 9,000 or 0.3 percent compared with the preceding month. Of this total 254,000 were working on Federal projects, 2,101,000 on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and 627,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration and Student-Aid. Pay-roll disbursements totaled in excess of $135,719,000.

In the regular agencies of the Federal Government, increases were reported for the executive, judicial, legislative, and military services. Employment in the executive service showed a small increase (0.7 percent) in April compared with March, but was 3.3 percent higher than a year ago. Of the 836,000 employees in the executive service in April, 117,000 were employed in the District of Columbia and 719,000 were working outside the District. Pronounced increases in employment in the executive departments occurred in the War Department, the Department of Agriculture, the Post Office Department, and the Works Progress Administration. An appreciable

decrease was shown in the number of workers in the Home Owners' Loan Corporation.

In emergency conservation work (Civilian Conservation Corps) employment increased sharply in April. Employment for all groups of workers totaled 369,000, an increase of 62,000 over March. Gains in employment were registered in the enrolled personnel and supervisory and technical workers. Losses, on the other hand, occurred in the number of reserve officers and educational advisers. Pay rolls for the month for all groups of workers were $17,503,000, an increase of $1,733,000.

The number of workers employed on the construction and maintenance of State roads in April was 138,000, an increase of more than 7,000 compared with the preceding month. Substantial gains were registered on new road construction and on maintenance work. Of the total number employed 9.5 percent were engaged on new construction and 90.5 percent on maintenance. Pay-roll disbursements for the month amounted to $9,108,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for March and April 1937 is given in table 2.

Table 2.—Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, April 1937 [1] (Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment		Percentage change	Pay roll		Percentage change
	April 1937	March 1937		April 1937	March 1937	
Federal service:						
Executive [2]	[3] 835,639	829,582	+0.7	$128,212,030	[4] $128,238,155	(5)
Judicial	2,018	1,995	+1.2	505,102	525,722	−3.9
Legislative	5,107	5,060	+.9	1,194,543	1,188,663	+.5
Military	317,001	316,160	+.3	24,914,582	[4] 23,462,794	+6.2
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A. [6 7]	192,201	173,574	+10.7	15,242,390	13,353,904	+14.1
Financed by R. F. C. [8]	8,226	7,696	+6.9	1,041,280	929,032	+12.1
Financed by regular governmental appropriations	132,639	120,175	+10.4	13,855,633	11,847,783	+16.9
Federal projects under The Works Program	254,524	249,690	+1.9	13,432,725	12,504,895	+7.4
Projects operated by W. P. A.	2,100,965	2,104,938	−.2	115,802,897	114,688,415	+1.0
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects	191,982	191,569	+.2	3,181,627	3,224,944	−1.3
Student-Aid	434,744	426,666	+1.9	3,302,100	3,230,513	+2.2
Relief work: Emergency conservation work [9]	369,309	307,337	+20.2	17,502,905	15,770,090	+11.0

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.
[2] Includes employees of Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Howard University.
[3] Includes 153 employees by transfer previously reported as separations, not actual additions for April.
[4] Revised.
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[6] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program.
[7] Includes 129,887 wage earners and $9,618,255 pay roll for April; 113,930 wage earners and $8,254,306 pay roll for March covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds.
[8] Includes 77 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $4,235 for April and 55 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $2,111 for March on projects financed by RFC Mortgage Co.
[9] Includes 40,617 employees and pay roll of $5,449,798 for April and 39,829 employees and pay roll of $5,482,134 for March included in executive service.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, March 1937

THIS article presents the detailed figures on volume of employment, as compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for the month of February 1937. The tabular data are the same as those published in the Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet for February, except for certain minor revisions and corrections.

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls in industrial and business industries are now available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings

THE indexes of employment and pay rolls, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries in March 1937 are shown in table 1. Percentage changes from February 1937 and March 1936 are also given.

Table 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, March 1937

Manufacturing

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index, March 1937	Percentage change from—		Index, March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—	
		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936
													Cents		
All manufacturing industries*	**101.1**	**+2.1**	**+15.0**	**101.1**	**+5.5**	**+30.3**	**$25.54**	**+3.3**	**+13.3**	**41.0**	**+1.3**	**+6.1**	**61.3**	**+2.1**	**+7.2**
Durable goods*	**96.4**	**+3.4**	**+20.2**	**100.0**	**+8.1**	**+39.3**	**28.78**	**+4.5**	**+15.9**	**42.4**	**+1.6**	**+6.1**	**67.0**	**+3.0**	**+8.6**
Nondurable goods	**106.1**	**+.9**	**+10.4**	**102.6**	**+2.7**	**+20.8**	**21.98**	**+1.8**	**+9.5**	**39.6**	**+.9**	**+5.8**	**55.4**	**+.7**	**+4.5**
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery*	**106.8**	**+3.3**	**+24.8**	**112.6**	**+8.4**	**+49.3**	**30.07**	**+4.9**	**19.6**	**43.2**	**+2.2**	**+7.1**	**69.0**	**+2.9**	**+10.5**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	117.1	+3.1	+26.2	127.2	+7.3	+53.0	32.45	+4.1	+21.1	43.5	+1.3	+6.7	74.8	+2.9	+12.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	90.2	+1.7	+27.9	108.2	+2.3	+56.7	27.79	+.6	+22.5	44.9	−.8	+13.5	61.9	+1.4	+7.8
Cast-iron pipe	69.1	+2.9	+17.3	55.5	+7.4	+45.5	21.56	+4.4	+24.0	40.7	+1.9	+16.6	52.2	+2.1	+4.1
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	89.4	+1.4	+13.8	84.1	+4.2	+30.0	23.89	+2.8	+14.2	43.3	+2.1	+9.1	56.5	+1.3	+4.7
Forgings, iron and steel	72.7	+2.2	+28.4	72.1	+5.7	+49.1	30.86	+3.5	+16.2	44.9	+.9	+8.3	68.9	+2.5	+7.3
Hardware*	100.1	+3.2	+28.6	116.6	+29.5	+57.6	26.31	+25.5	+22.5	43.3	+15.0	+10.0	61.1	+9.6	+11.2
Plumbers' supplies	95.7	+4.8	+12.9	80.4	+17.6	+30.3	26.03	+12.2	+15.5	43.3	+8.8	+9.3	60.1	+3.2	+5.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	79.7	+3.2	+31.0	78.6	+5.1	+60.6	28.46	+1.8	+22.5	44.5	+.4	+12.1	64.0	+1.6	+9.6
Stoves	113.0	+4.5	+20.0	102.4	+5.9	+30.3	26.63	+1.3	+8.4	42.5	−.3	+4.8	62.4	+.6	+3.1
Structural and ornamental metalwork	74.2	+3.3	+29.2	72.2	+7.0	+55.9	27.38	+3.6	+20.7	43.0	+1.9	+13.2	63.8	+1.7	+7.2
Tin cans and other tinware	100.2	+1.8	+8.6	104.2	+4.9	+14.8	23.05	+2.9	+5.7	40.6	+1.0	+1.5	57.2	+1.9	+3.8
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	102.0	+2.2	+28.4	110.9	+1.5	+40.8	25.42	−.7	+9.7	45.1	−2.1	+4.6	56.3	+1.5	+5.0
Wirework	186.5	+5.9	+28.2	180.3	+15.6	+37.5	24.59	+9.1	+8.4	40.7	+5.2	+.6	60.4	+3.6	+7.7
Machinery, not including transportation	**121.2**	**+2.2**	**+25.1**	**125.5**	**+6.2**	**+44.6**	**28.51**	**+3.8**	**+15.5**	**43.2**	**+1.5**	**+7.4**	**65.8**	**+2.4**	**+8.2**

Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**121.2**	**+2.2**	**+25.1**	**125.5**	**+6.2**	**+44.6**	**28.51**	**+3.8**	**+15.5**	**43.2**	**+1.5**	**+7.4**	**65.8**	**+2.4**	**+8.2**
Agricultural implements	131.5	+10.6	+2.1	162.1	+16.2	+12.7	27.66	+5.1	+11.0	41.7	+3.0	+1.4	66.6	+2.4	+9.2
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	130.5	+2.6	+13.0	140.3	+7.8	+31.8	33.17	+5.0	+16.7	42.7	−.2	+3.3	78.4	+5.5	+12.4
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	111.2	+1.7	+35.4	112.1	+4.5	+54.2	27.82	+2.8	+14.0	41.7	+1.1	+6.8	66.4	+2.3	+7.4
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	139.8	+3.6	+15.5	139.2	+6.2	+30.4	31.03	+2.5	+13.9	41.4	+1.1	+3.8	75.1	+1.4	+10.1
Foundry and machine-shop products	106.8	+2.3	+26.6	111.6	+6.3	+48.0	28.99	+3.8	+17.0	44.9	+1.3	+8.3	64.6	+2.6	+8.6
Machine tools	142.8	+3.2	+29.2	152.7	+7.3	+49.2	32.45	+3.9	+15.5	46.9	+1.5	+5.6	69.1	+2.2	+9.1
Radios and phonographs	163.0	−4.5	+6.0	127.1	+2.3	+21.2	20.36	+7.1	+14.2	36.5	+7.5	+10.8	56.0	−.2	+3.5
Textile machinery and parts	84.9	+2.8	+20.4	89.6	+2.4	+36.4	28.39	−.4	+13.5	45.6	−1.8	+6.2	62.5	+1.4	+6.7
Typewriters and parts	152.8	+4.3	+36.2	153.2	+11.3	+63.8	26.76	+6.7	+20.3	44.1	+2.5	+14.5	60.7	+4.1	+8.4
Transportation equipment	**121.0**	**+4.3**	**+19.9**	**123.6**	**+10.1**	**+42.1**	**32.43**	**+5.5**	**+18.4**	**39.2**	**+.4**	**+6.7**	**82.8**	**+4.8**	**+11.5**
Aircraft	790.8	+4.6	+54.0	703.4	+7.8	+67.4	27.89	+3.1	+5.6	45.3	+3.2	+7.3	62.6	+.1	−2.0
Automobiles	131.6	+3.3	+16.9	132.2	+8.5	+40.0	33.25	+5.0	+19.8	38.9	−.7	+5.6	85.7	+5.7	+13.9
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	70.2	+11.7	+41.4	79.1	+18.6	+72.0	27.49	+6.2	+22.5	41.0	+3.8	+15.1	67.0	+2.3	+5.4
Locomotives	54.2	+7.6	+104.3	40.8	+9.7	+159.6	29.39	+2.0	+27.1	43.8	+1.2	+20.6	67.0	+.8	+5.3
Shipbuilding	106.8	+8.3	+15.2	116.0	+18.6	+27.7	30.34	+9.5	+10.8	38.1	+7.2	+5.5	79.0	+.3	+4.9
Railroad repair shops	**62.2**	**+1.0**	**+7.2**	**65.8**	**+3.8**	**+8.0**	***30.32**	**+2.8**	**+0.8**	**44.2**	**+3.3**	**+.9**	**68.9**	**−.3**	**−.1**
Electric railroad	64.0	+1.1	+3.0	67.1	+3.5	+5.4	29.50	+2.4	+2.4	44.7	+2.6	−1.1	64.6	+.2	+3.4
Steam railroad	62.1	+1.1	+7.6	65.9	+4.0	+8.3	30.45	+2.9	+.6	44.2	+3.3	+1.1	69.2	−.3	−.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	**114.6**	**+2.8**	**+21.1**	**111.8**	**+8.0**	**+44.1**	**26.18**	**+5.2**	**+19.0**	**42.6**	**+1.6**	**+7.2**	**61.1**	**+3.4**	**+10.9**
Aluminum manufactures	124.2	+1.6	+19.1	130.4	+7.1	+39.9	26.35	+5.4	+17.4	43.0	+1.5	+5.6	61.3	+3.8	+11.7
Brass, bronze, and copper products	124.1	+1.9	+25.6	127.8	+6.3	+59.7	29.06	+4.2	+27.1	43.7	+.1	+10.5	66.6	+4.2	+15.2
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	122.1	+1.6	+16.3	120.2	+8.2	+31.8	23.05	+6.5	+13.3	43.0	+2.4	+7.3	53.6	+4.0	+6.6
Jewelry	88.6	+.1	+18.7	69.2	+4.7	+36.9	23.47	+4.6	+15.3	39.3	+2.3	+11.8	59.8	+2.6	+3.5
Lighting equipment	103.8	+7.3	+43.0	109.3	+21.6	+77.1	26.58	+13.1	+23.8	42.4	+7.1	+12.1	63.0	+6.0	+10.8
Silverware and plated ware	73.8	+2.7	+13.6	67.9	+8.3	+33.5	25.54	+5.5	+17.5	41.8	+5.3	+14.9	61.4	+.6	+.8
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	81.1	+2.8	+4.5	75.2	+9.1	+21.2	27.33	+6.1	+16.1	42.7	+2.5	+1.6	63.9	+3.5	+14.2
Stamped and enameled ware	165.3	+3.9	+22.8	163.2	+5.4	+34.3	22.99	+1.5	+9.5	42.0	−.1	+.7	54.8	+1.4	+9.3
Lumber and allied products	**69.8**	**+6.1**	**+13.9**	**64.6**	**+11.0**	**+28.4**	**20.78**	**+4.8**	**+12.8**	**43.3**	**+1.1**	**+4.9**	**48.6**	**+4.5**	**+5.8**
Furniture	87.5	+1.6	+22.2	76.9	+2.5	+39.5	20.81	+.8	+14.2	43.1	−.2	+6.8	48.8	+1.3	+8.0
Lumber:															
Millwork	56.7	+2.9	+25.5	52.6	+4.4	+40.1	21.55	+1.4	+11.7	44.8	+1.0	+9.0	48.3	+.4	+2.1
Sawmills	52.3	+9.9	+7.2	48.0	+20.7	+18.7	20.53	+9.7	+10.8	43.1	+1.9	+2.9	48.6	+7.8	+6.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	**70.3**	**+4.6**	**+19.4**	**66.1**	**+10.5**	**+37.1**	**23.95**	**+5.6**	**+14.9**	**40.4**	**+2.8**	**+6.4**	**59.5**	**+2.5**	**+7.3**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	49.3	+5.9	+29.8	42.6	+12.2	+51.9	21.19	+6.0	+17.2	43.3	+3.7	+8.8	49.4	+2.4	+8.4
Cement	63.5	+9.1	+36.5	62.5	+18.9	+59.2	24.33	+9.0	+16.5	39.1	+5.8	+7.6	62.2	+3.0	+8.5
Glass	110.1	+2.2	+13.7	115.1	+7.4	+31.3	25.15	+5.0	+15.3	38.4	+1.9	+4.9	65.6	+3.0	+9.9
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	40.4	+7.7	+18.8	33.5	+12.0	+29.4	24.33	+4.0	+9.0	37.6	+.6	+4.5	64.9	+3.6	+4.4
Pottery	81.1	+4.6	+9.0	73.9	+9.3	+23.5	24.17	+4.6	+13.4	43.2	+2.2	+6.9	56.0	+1.0	+2.2

See footnotes at end of table

Table 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, March 1937—Continued

Manufacturing—Continued

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index, March 1937	Percentage change from—		Index, March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—	
		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936
Nondurable goods													*Cents*		
Textiles and their products	**111.2**	**+0.9**	**+10.6**	**103.2**	**+3.1**	**+20.4**	**$18.42**	**+2.2**	**+8.8**	**38.2**	**+1.1**	**+6.4**	**48.1**	**+1.1**	**+2.6**
Fabrics	103.8	+.2	+11.6	97.5	−.1	+23.9	17.66	−.3	+11.0	38.8	−.4	+6.4	45.5	+.1	+4.0
Carpets and rugs	102.3	+2.3	+22.2	102.8	+4.7	+51.5	23.71	+2.3	+24.0	40.2	+.4	+18.0	59.1	+1.8	+4.0
Cotton goods	105.1	+.8	+16.9	101.4	+1.0	+34.1	15.27	+.3	+14.6	39.1	+.3	+7.0	39.0	0	+7.2
Cotton small wares	108.6	+1.6	+16.8	109.3	+4.1	+28.1	18.76	+2.6	+9.8	41.2	+1.3	+7.9	45.9	+1.7	+3.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles	123.1	+.3	+2.9	112.6	+.6	+12.0	22.04	+.3	+8.8	40.3	−.7	+5.6	54.2	+.9	+2.3
Hats, fur-felt	90.8	+.8	+4.5	89.5	−4.7	+16.9	26.74	−5.4	+11.9	37.4	−5.9	+1.4	70.4	−1.6	+4.1
Knit goods	123.7	+.8	+7.5	127.0	+.3	+12.9	17.79	−.4	+5.0	38.5	+.2	+4.5	47.3	−.5	+.9
Silk and rayon goods	82.7	−1.2	+8.9	70.7	−.9	+20.1	16.56	+.4	+10.2	38.1	−1.7	+8.0	43.5	+1.9	+1.9
Woolen and worsted goods	90.3	−2.2	+7.0	79.0	−3.9	+21.6	20.18	−1.8	+13.6	37.8	−1.7	+6.2	53.5	−.1	+6.8
Wearing apparel	125.5	+2.4	+8.8	110.4	+9.4	+15.0	20.55	+6.9	+5.6	37.0	+4.4	+5.9	53.1	+2.4	+.6
Clothing, men's	116.2	+1.6	+6.9	105.7	+6.9	+15.7	21.69	+5.1	+9.2	37.4	+4.4	+10.7	57.0	+2.1	+2.0
Clothing, women's	169.9	+2.6	+8.5	138.0	+10.4	+13.7	22.09	+7.5	+4.7	35.5	+4.1	+3.7	57.0	+2.5	0
Corsets and allied garments	93.2	+1.7	+4.9	98.2	+6.1	+6.9	17.31	+4.3	+1.8	38.9	+2.8	+2.9	44.5	+1.5	−1.1
Men's furnishings	147.6	+3.4	+21.5	123.1	+8.3	+25.3	15.00	+4.8	+3.2	39.0	+3.2	+1.2	33.6	+1.3	−2.0
Millinery	66.8	+8.6	+2.5	64.7	+28.4	+5.0	26.72	+18.3	+2.4						
Shirts and collars	130.1	+2.8	+17.9	122.4	+9.4	+23.2	14.24	+6.4	+4.4	37.5	+3.1	+.6	37.5	+1.9	+2.2
Leather and its manufactures	**100.8**	**+.9**	**+7.7**	**92.4**	**+1.7**	**+26.4**	**21.50**	**+.8**	**+17.4**	**40.9**	**−1.4**	**+14.2**	**52.6**	**+1.0**	**+2.7**
Boots and shoes	102.7	+.8	+8.6	89.0	+1.3	+28.6	20.84	+.5	+18.3	40.9	−1.9	+15.0	50.9	+1.2	+2.2
Leather	98.8	+1.4	+4.1	107.3	+2.6	+20.6	24.11	+1.2	+15.9	40.9	+.8	+10.7	59.1	+.4	+4.8
Food and kindred products	**105.7**	**+.6**	**+8.2**	**104.1**	**+2.8**	**+15.4**	**23.72**	**+2.2**	**+6.7**	**42.0**	**+.4**	**+3.3**	**56.5**	**+1.2**	**+5.4**
Baking	133.7	+1.2	+6.9	124.1	+1.8	+13.3	24.19	+.6	+6.1	43.8	+1.2	+7.7	55.8	−.4	+1.5
Beverages	192.5	+5.7	+12.7	211.0	+11.5	+16.9	32.46	+5.4	+3.8	40.7	+4.3	+.8	80.7	+1.1	+2.6
Butter	82.3	+1.8	+5.8	64.4	+.3	+5.8	21.91	−1.4	−[2]						
Canning and preserving	89.6	−3.1	+14.4	89.5	−7.8	+23.3	16.15	−4.9	+7.7	37.5	−6.6	+4.1	44.7	+2.0	+7.4
Confectionery	78.8	−.8	+5.0	76.2	+.9	+12.3	17.42	+1.7	+6.9	39.7	−[2]	+4.8	43.6	+1.8	+1.9
Flour	74.2	−.7	−1.4	70.4	−.5	+1.6	24.12	+.1	+3.1	43.4	−2.1	+.8	54.9	+1.3	+1.6
Ice cream	64.6	+4.5	+6.9	59.4	+5.2	+10.4	27.94	+.8	+3.2	47.6	+2.0	+1.3	57.6	−.8	+.6
Slaughtering and meat packing	90.7	−.7	+10.7	91.5	+3.5	+22.0	25.26	+4.2	+10.1	41.0	+.5	+1.4	60.8	+2.8	+8.3
Sugar, beet	38.9	+4.2	+10.2	44.8	+2.7	+8.0	26.50	−1.4	−2.1	39.8	+1.9	−3.7	68.6	−.6	+2.8
Sugar refining, cane	76.2	+1.2	−3.3	80.7	+22.0	+15.0	28.42	+20.5	+18.9	45.9	+20.2	+13.9	60.8	+.1	+2.2
Tobacco manufactures	69.8	+.5	+2.7	52.4	−.4	+12.7	15.82	−.8	+9.8	36.7	−.1	+5.5	42.8	−1.3	+4.7

Sugar, beet	38.9	+4.2	+10.2	44.8	+2.7	+8.0	26.50	−1.4	−2.1	39.8	+1.9	−3.7	68.6	−.6	+2.8
Sugar refining, cane	76.2	+1.2	−3.3	80.7	+22.0	+15.0	28.42	+20.5	+18.9	45.9	+20.2	+13.9	69.8	+.1	+2.2
Tobacco manufactures	**60.8**	**+.5**	**+2.7**	**52.4**	**−.4**	**+12.7**	**15.82**	**−.8**	**+9.8**	**36.7**	**−.1**	**+5.5**	**42.8**	**−1.3**	**+4.7**
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	57.0	−3.2	+1.0	65.5	−2.7	+11.6	17.05	+.5	+10.6	37.1	−.6	+3.7	46.2	+1.1	+6.7
Cigars and cigarettes	61.2	+1.1	+3.1	50.8	−.1	+12.8	15.55	−1.2	+9.5	36.7	0	+5.8	42.4	−1.6	+4.4
Paper and printing	**107.1**	**+1.3**	**+8.5**	**104.1**	**+3.6**	**+16.6**	**28.21**	**+2.2**	**+7.4**	**41.1**	**+1.3**	**+5.5**	**71.4**	**+.9**	**+1.9**
Boxes, paper	103.7	+2.1	+13.6	106.7	+3.4	+24.4	20.93	+1.3	+9.5	43.1	+.8	+8.4	49.2	+.6	+1.1
Paper and pulp	117.6	+1.3	+8.8	116.5	+2.6	+23.6	24.88	+1.3	+13.7	43.7	+.5	+5.8	56.8	+.8	+7.0
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job	98.0	+.6	+11.4	94.2	+3.4	+18.4	30.24	+2.8	+6.2	40.5	+1.5	+6.0	75.7	+1.2	+.1
Newspapers and periodicals	105.6	+1.6	+2.9	103.3	+4.6	+7.8	36.75	+2.9	+4.8	37.7	+2.3	+3.0	94.2	+1.0	+2.7
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	**124.9**	**+2.5**	**+9.8**	**128.1**	**+3.6**	**+22.6**	**26.57**	**+1.2**	**+11.8**	**40.4**	**+1.4**	**+2.9**	**66.8**	**−.4**	**+9.8**
Other than petroleum refining	126.0	+2.9	+10.9	128.8	+4.0	+25.0	24.62	+1.0	+12.6	41.6	+1.2	+3.5	59.8	−.3	+10.5
Chemicals	134.0	+2.0	+16.6	140.2	+3.7	+30.9	29.03	+1.7	+12.3	40.9	+.2	+1.4	71.0	+1.6	+10.8
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	68.7	−16.2	−8.4	58.6	−12.9	+4.6	11.77	+4.1	+14.0	49.3	−2.4	+9.3	24.1	+6.6	+5.7
Druggists' preparations	112.2	+2.0	+8.9	121.2	+1.6	+13.8	23.62	−.4	+4.5	40.5	−.4	+2.3	55.2	−(2)	+.6
Explosives	90.2	−3.2	+7.8	97.5	+4.8	+18.8	30.51	+8.2	+10.3	40.4	+5.9	−.8	75.6	+2.2	+11.4
Fertilizers	135.9	+41.4	+10.7	127.6	+46.8	+26.3	15.40	+3.8	+14.2	44.9	+9.9	+12.4	34.3	−5.6	+2.5
Paints and varnishes	134.6	+2.6	+11.3	133.1	+4.6	+22.4	27.21	+1.9	+9.9	42.9	+1.4	+4.2	63.5	+.6	+5.3
Rayon and allied products	373.3	+.8	+7.9	349.7	+1.5	+24.0	23.07	+.7	+14.8	39.8	+1.8	+2.5	58.0	−1.1	+12.2
Soap	111.0	+1.1	+17.1	123.2	−1.0	+32.3	27.18	−2.0	+13.1	40.9	−2.9	+3.4	66.7	+.8	+9.3
Petroleum refining	120.5	+.8	+5.2	125.6	+2.3	+14.6	31.83	+1.5	+8.8	36.5	+1.6	+.3	88.3	+(2)	+9.5
Rubber products	**96.7**	**−4.8**	**+28.2**	**99.8**	**−4.4**	**+49.6**	**27.69**	**+.4**	**+16.6**	**38.2**	**+1.8**	**+3.7**	**73.9**	**−1.4**	**+13.2**
Rubber boots and shoes	80.2	+9.4	+13.5	72.2	+11.2	+29.6	22.39	+1.6	+14.3	39.9	+1.6	+4.6	56.2	+(2)	+7.7
Rubber goods, other than boots, shoes, tires, and inner tubes	144.2	+1.9	+20.0	146.0	+3.4	+38.1	23.36	+1.5	+15.1	41.4	−.4	+10.5	57.1	+1.7	+6.3
Rubber tires and inner tubes	81.2	−13.1	+41.8	90.4	−10.8	+62.6	32.57	+2.6	+14.6	35.1	+2.3	−.9	93.0	+.5	+14.4

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, March 1937—Continued

Nonmanufacturing

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index, March 1937	Percentage change from—		Index, March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—		March 1937	Percentage change from—	
		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936		February 1937	March 1936
Coal mining:													*Cents*		
Anthracite	48.9	−7.3	−6.9	37.8	−7.9	−11.2	$22.51	−0.7	−4.6	28.5	+0.7	+2.3	78.8	−0.7	−5.3
Bituminous	85.9	+1.3	+6.8	88.4	+7.3	+26.0	26.22	+6.0	+17.9	33.8	+6.2	+17.6	78.6	−.8	−.1
Metalliferous mining	73.1	+5.0	+30.8	70.6	+11.4	+56.3	30.57	+6.0	+19.5	45.0	+2.8	+5.0	68.1	+3.2	+14.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	49.1	+5.2	+16.3	41.3	+9.4	+33.7	21.11	+4.0	+15.0	42.0	+4.3	+6.7	50.5	+.5	+7.5
Crude-petroleum producing	74.3	+1.1	+4.8	63.7	−.2	+13.8	32.15	−1.3	+8.5	39.6	+.8	+5.9	79.8	−2.0	+1.6
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph	75.4	+.8	+7.3	86.9	+5.7	+12.6	30.84	+4.8	+4.9	39.1	+3.1	+1.1	81.8	+1.5	+3.8
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	92.2	+.2	+6.2	94.5	+1.3	+10.1	33.15	+1.1	+3.7	40.8	+.7	+2.1	81.4	0	+2.7
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	72.6	+.2	+2.1	69.2	+.7	+2.0	31.24	+.5	−.1	46.4	+.7	−1.8	66.4	−.2	+2.1
Trade:															
Wholesale	92.1	+[2]	+7.6	75.0	+1.2	+8.7	28.92	+1.2	+1.0	42.9	+1.0	+.4	67.5	+.3	+.6
Retail **	88.5	+3.9	+8.1	70.5	+3.9	+11.0	21.35	−[2]	+2.7	43.5	−.5	−.7	53.5	+.6	+3.2
General merchandising **	100.3	+6.8	+10.3	87.6	+5.6	+13.3	18.24	−1.1	+2.7	40.2	−.7	−1.5	49.0	+.5	+5.3
Other than general merchandising	85.4	+3.0	+7.3	67.0	+3.4	+10.4	23.87	+.4	+2.9	44.6	−.4	−.4	54.8	+.8	+2.8
Hotels (year-round) [3]	86.9	+.6	+4.9	72.7	+.3	+10.2	14.43	−.3	+5.0	48.3	+.6	+1.5	29.7	−.7	+4.4
Laundries	88.7	+.2	+8.1	77.5	+1.5	+10.8	16.41	+1.3	+2.5	43.0	+.4	+.3	38.0	+.8	+2.2
Dyeing and cleaning	81.1	+6.4	+8.5	61.7	+13.0	+9.4	18.76	+6.1	+.8	42.5	+3.4	−.3	45.5	+2.1	+.7
Brokerage	[4]	+.7	+6.3	[4]	+1.0	+12.3	38.89	+.3	+5.7	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]
Insurance	[4]	+[2]	+1.4	[4]	−4.6	+5.9	39.24	−4.6	+4.4	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]
Building construction	[4]	+2.3	+24.0	[4]	+2.4	+41.8	27.93	+.1	+14.8	31.5	−1.2	+3.1	88.2	+1.0	+11.4

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. Percentage changes over year are computed from indexes. Percentage changes over month in average weekly earnings for the manufacturing groups, for all manufacturing industries combined, and for retail trade are also computed from indexes.

[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

[3] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[4] Not available.

*December data revised as follows:

[3] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.
[4] Not available.

*December data revised as follows:
All manufacturing industries.—Pay-roll index, 95.2; percentage change from November, +5.0; percentage change from December 1935, +22.7.
Average weekly earnings, $24.87; percentage change from November, +3.6; percentage change from December 1935, +10.4.
Average hours, percentage change from November, +1.4; percentage change from December 1935, +6.1.
Durable goods.—Average weekly earnings, $28.02; percentage change from November, +3.2; percentage change from December 1935, +12.8.
Average hours, 42.9; percentage change from November, +0.2; percentage change from December 1935, +7.0.
Average hourly earnings, 64.5; percentage change from November, +2.9; percentage change from December 1935, +4.9.
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.—Pay-roll index, 103.2; percentage change from November, +7.7; percentage change from December 1935, +38.9.
Average weekly earnings, $29.34; percentage change from November, +6.5; percentage change from December 1935, +17.9.
Average hours, 43.6; percentage change from November, +0.5; percentage change from December 1935, +9.3.
Average hourly earnings, 66.9; percentage change from November, +5.9; percentage change from December 1935, +7.4.
Hardware.—Pay-roll index, 116.2; percentage change from November, +9.4; percentage change from December 1935, +38.1.
Average weekly earnings, $27.43; percentage change from November, +4.7; percentage change from December 1935, +17.4.
Average hours, 46.2; percentage change from November, +2 9; percentage change from December 1935, +10.0.
Average hourly earnings, 60.3; percentage change from November, +1.8; percentage change from December 1935, +7.6.
** November and December hours and hourly earnings revised as follows:
Retail trade.—November hours, 43.8; percentage change from October +0.1; percentage change from November 1935, +2.5.
November hourly earnings, 52.2; percentage change from October, +0.5; percentage change from November 1935, +1.1.
December hours, 44.3; percentage change from December 1935, +1.1.
December hourly earnings, 50.8; percentage change from November, −3.1; percentage change from December 1935, +1.3.
General merchandising.—November hours, 40.8; percentage change from October, −0.1; percentage change from November 1935, +3.9.
November hourly earnings, 46.1; percentage change from October, +0.2; percentage change from November 1935, +0.2.
December hours, 42.9; percentage change from November, +4.7; percentage change from December 1935, +2.0.
December hourly earnings, 42.6; percentage change from November, −7.7; percentage change from December 1935, +.2.

Changes in January 1937 Figures Because of Flood Conditions

TABLE 2 summarizes certain revisions that have been necessary in employment and pay-roll indexes, average weekly earnings, average hours, and average hourly earnings for January chiefly because of late reports from firms in flood areas.

Although all items for each industry were not affected by the revisions, data are presented for all items for the convenience of the reader. Where revisions have not been made, the figures are shown in bold-face type.

Table 2.—Revised Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1937

[Figures in bold face type indicate that revisions were not necessary]

Manufacturing

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index, January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index, January 1937	Percentage change from—		January 1937	Percentage change from—		January 1937	Percentage change from—		January 1937	Percentage change from—	
		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936
													Cents		
All manufacturing industries	**96.5**	**−1.6**	**+11.2**	90.7	−4.6	+22.9	$24.02	−3.1	+10.6	**39.6**	−3.7	+6.0	59.6	**+0.3**	+3.9
Durable goods	90.4	−2.5	+14.9	86.6	−7.3	+29.4	26.54	−5.0	**+12.7**	**40.6**	−5.2	**+6.8**	**64.3**	−.2	**+4.4**
Nondurable goods	103.0	−1.0	+8.0	96.0	−1.5	+16.4	21.31	−.6	+7.7	38.7	**−1.9**	+5.0	54.9	+1.1	+2.7
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**100.0**	**−.4**	**+18.5**	99.8	−2.2	+43.4	28.54	−2.9	+21.0	42.0	−3.6	+11.0	66.9	−.2	+7.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	86.9	+3.7	+20.4	97.8	−.7	+37.2	26.12	−4.2	+13.9	43.2	−4.9	+7.9	60.6	+.7	+5.3
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery), and edge tools	87.1	−.1	+10.4	80.3	−6.0	+21.2	23.24	−6.0	+9.8	42.6	−7.4	+7.9	55.3	+1.2	+1.3
Hardware	**80.2**	**−16.1**	−1.2	81.6	−29.8	+5.8	22.98	−16.3	+7.0	41.6	−9.9	+5.5	55.5	−8.1	+1.1
Stoves	96.7	−10.2	+17.2	76.8	−20.0	+27.6	23.18	−10.9	+8.7	39.5	−8.6	**+9.5**	**59.3**	−1.8	−.2
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	114.9	+.7	+20.6	**111.0**	**−2.3**	**+34.5**	**26.67**	−3.0	+11.5	**41.8**	−4.0	**+7.2**	**63.6**	**+.9**	**+4.6**
Agricultural implements	111.3	+8.1	−10.7	131.6	+8.4	−3.2	26.52	+.2	+8.6	40.9	+.1	**+2.2**	65.3	+.4	+6.1
Radios and phonographs	187.1	−7.7	+6.2	146.0	−12.8	+21.0	20.48	−5.6	+13.9	36.4	−6.5	+9.0	56.3	**+1.0**	**+4.6**
Transportation equipment	112.7	−7.7	+9.8	100.7	−16.7	+17.5	28.21	−9.7	+7.1	**36.9**	−8.3	**+3.3**	76.9	−1.7	+3.6
Aircraft	725.4	+5.0	+64.9	606.3	−2.2	+63.5	26.23	−6.9	−3.3	42.7	−5.9	+.4	62.1	−1.0	−1.6
Automobiles	125.2	−9.7	+6.2	108.2	**−20.3**	+13.0	28.42	−11.7	+6.4	**36.5**	−9.9	+2.4	78.5	−1.7	**+4.6**
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	55.7	−2.1	+35.7	**58.8**	**−1.8**	**+59.5**	25.91	+.3	+18.5	39.9	−.2	+11.3	64.9	+.3	**+5.4**
Shipbuilding	94.5	+5.1	+10.2	96.8	+6.9	+17.3	28.40	+1.6	+6.5	35.9	+2.5	+3.3	78.2	−1.2	+2.6

See footnotes at end of table.

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Table 2.—Revised Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1937—Con.

[Figures in bold face type indicate that revisions were not necessary]

Manufacturing—Continued

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index, January 1937	Percentage change from—		Index, January 1937	Percentage change from—		January 1937	Percentage change from—		January 1937	Percentage change from—		January 1937	Percentage change from—	
		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936		December 1936	January 1936
Durable goods—Continued													*Cents*		
Nonferrous metals and their products	106.9	−4.2	+12.5	**97.1**	**−8.0**	**+27.6**	$24.49	−3.9	+13.4	**41.1**	**−6.2**	+5.6	**59.1**	+2.4	**+7.3**
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	118.4	−2.4	+14.9	109.1	−7.5	+30.0	21.57	−5.2	+13.1	**41.6**	−7.0	+8.8	**52.3**	+2.3	+5.1
Lumber and allied products	65.0	−3.1	+9.8	**54.9**	**−9.3**	**+19.6**	18.80	−6.3	+9.0	40.9	−6.0	+4.4	46.1	−.7	+1.0
Lumber															
Millwork	53.8	−.4	+23.1	47.1	−7.1	+36.1	20.15	−6.8	+10.5	42.5	−6.8	+10.3	47.8	+(2)	+.1
Sawmills	46.8	−4.5	+.6	37.2	−10.5	+2.3	17.51	**−6.3**	+1.8	39.8	−4.7	+.9	44.6	−2.2	−.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	**62.5**	**−6.9**	**+13.2**	52.7	−10.8	+25.8	21.38	−4.3	+11.1	38.2	−4.4	+9.2	56.5	+.1	**+1.2**
Brick	45.6	−6.4	+25.8	36.4	−11.1	+45.6	19.29	−5.1	+15.9	**40.5**	−5.4	+11.2	48.0	+.3	**+4.8**
Cement	57.1	−7.9	+43.1	49.9	−15.1	+72.0	21.63	−7.8	+20.1	35.7	−9.9	+16.3	60.6	+2.3	**+3.5**
Glass	92.8	−7.8	−1.1	84.6	−11.1	+4.4	21.98	−3.6	+5.4	36.8	−2.2	+5.9	**60.0**	−1.2	−.6
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	36.3	−11.5	+26.4	28.5	−14.4	+44.2	23.10	**−3.3**	+14.2	**36.1**	−5.8	+10.8	**64.7**	**+3.1**	**+3.4**
Pottery	74.8	−2.1	+7.9	63.2	−3.1	+24.7	**22.45**	−1.1	+15.5	**40.4**	−2.9	+10.7	55.8	+.3	**+2.0**
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	**107.1**	**+.7**	**+9.1**	94.6	0	+18.0	17.80	−.7	+8.1	**37.1**	−2.0	**+6.8**	47.5	**+.8**	**+.7**
Wearing apparel	115.6	+.7	+9.3	88.1	+2.1	+10.3	18.09	+1.3	+.9	**33.5**	**−.7**	+5.1	51.6	+.2	**−4.1**
Women's clothing	**154.9**	**+.6**	**+9.3**	107.7	+3.9	+8.5	19.12	+3.3	−.7	32.6	**+.5**	**+4.4**	55.3	**+1.2**	**−5.8**
Men's furnishings	130.0	−7.5	+19.6	93.3	−18.9	+14.2	13.04	−12.3	−4.5	36.1	−6.0	−1.3	32.3	−5.8	−5.9
Millinery	55.4	+23.3	+5.6	41.4	+41.9	+4.8	20.04	+15.0	−.8						
Shirts and collars	**119.2**	**−2.9**	+21.1	99.6	−11.1	+22.4	**12.79**	**−8.4**	**+.9**	34.1	−8.3	+1.0	38.0	**+.8**	**−1.8**
Leather and its manufactures	97.5	+3.7	+5.0	86.3	+10.2	+12.5	20.69	+6.2	+7.1	**40.6**	**+4.0**	**+5.9**	**51.5**	**+1.3**	**+.8**
Boots and shoes	99.0	+5.3	+6.3	82.4	+15.4	+14.0	20.00	+9.6	+7.2	**40.7**	+5.8	**+6.4**	**49.9**	**+1.5**	+(2)
Food and kindred products	105.2	−4.9	+6.9	100.5	−4.9	+11.9	22.96	−.1	+4.6	41.3	−1.7	+2.2	55.6	+2.2	+4.6
Beverages	182.3	+.7	+13.0	187.8	+.1	+14.9	30.38	−.7	+1.7	**38.4**	−1.4	−.5	79.8	+.8	+1.5
Butter	80.4	−1.4	+4.3	62.4	−.8	+8.5	21.67	+.7	+4.1						
Canning and preserving	90.4	−6.7	+6.3	86.3	−4.9	+19.7	15.49	+1.8	+12.6	37.2	+.6	+11.5	42.7	+1.3	+4.9
Tobacco manufactures	57.1	−9.8	+4.0	47.1	−15.0	+9.5	15.27	−5.7	+5.4	35.0	−7.6	+1.3	43.5	+2.6	+4.3

Butter	90.4	−6.7	+6.3	86.3	−4.9	+19.7	15.49	+1.8	+12.6	37.2	+.6	+11.5	42.7	+1.3	+4.9
Canning and preserving															
Tobacco manufactures	87.1	−9.8	+4.0	47.1	−15.0	+9.5	15.27	−5.7	+5.4	35.0	−7.6	+1.3	43.5	+2.6	+4.3
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	97.2	+1.4	−.6	63.7	−1.6	+6.4	16.68	−2.9	+7.1	36.8	−2.2	+2.6	45.5	−.7	+4.4
Cigars and cigarettes	87.0	−11.0	+4.5	45.1	−17.0	+10.1	14.94	−6.7	+5.5	34.8	−8.3	+1.2	43.2	+3.0	+4.2
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	120.2	+.8	+7.5	119.4	+.9	+18.9	25.91	+.1	+10.6	39.4	−1.6	+2.8	66.9	+1.8	+8.2
Other than petroleum refining	120.4	+.9	+8.7	119.4	+1.2	+20.9	23.96	+.3	+11.2	40.7	−1.2	+3.6	59.7	+1.4	+8.3
Fertilizers	87.1	+8.3	+8.0	77.8	+8.6	+19.6	14.42	+.2	+10.6	39.8	+1.8	+9.3	36.2	−1.6	+1.8
Soap	100.3	+1.5	+5.1	107.1	+2.7	+15.0	26.19	+1.2	+9.6	39.7	−.8	+.9	66.2	+2.1	+8.6
Rubber products	101.3	−.6	+18.3	99.4	−5.2	+27.4	26.30	−4.6	+7.7	37.0	−5.5	+2.6	72.9	+.8	+5.0
Rubber tires and inner tubes	92.7	+.2	+22.1	94.6	−5.1	+26.9	29.83	−5.3	+3.9	33.4	−6.4	−1.6	89.3	+.7	+4.3

Nonmanufacturing

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Coal mining:													*Cents*	
Bituminous	84.6	+0.9	+6.1	79.9	−6.0	+13.2	$23.86	−6.8	+6.7	30.6	−6.5	+4.5	79.4	−0.1	+1.7
Public utilities:															
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	92.1	−1.2	+7.0	92.3	−1.6	+8.8	32.51	−.4	+1.7	39.9	−2.2	+1.3	82.0	+2.1	+1.8
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	72.5	−.1	+2.5	68.0	−2.0	+4.6	30.81	−1.9	+2.0	46.1	−1.6	+.1	66.1	−.5	+2.0
Trade:															
Retail	85.4	−14.2	+6.2	68.0	−10.5	+9.5	21.27	+4.4	+3.1	43.9	−.8	+.4	52.9	+5.2	+2.0
General merchandising	95.1	−33.7	+7.8	83.8	−27.8	+9.8	18.38	+8.8	+1.8	41.1	−4.2	+.1	47.7	+11.9	+1.8
Other than general merchandising	82.9	−5.8	+5.8	64.7	−4.2	+9.5	23.70	+1.8	+3.5	44.8	−.2	+.6	54.5	+1.7	+2.1

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. Percentage changes over year are computed from indexes. Percentage changes over month in average weekly earnings for the manufacturing groups, for all manufacturing industries combined, and for retail trade are also computed from indexes

[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls, January 1936 to March 1937

INDEXES of employment and pay rolls are given in tables 3 and 4 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries separately, and for 13 nonmanufacturing industries including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, January 1936 to March 1937, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to March 1937.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover only wage earners. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100. In March 1937 reports were received from 25,331 manufacturing establishments employing 4,899,958 workers whose weekly earnings were $125,157,284. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for nonmanufacturing industries are also computed from data supplied by reporting establishments, but the base is the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance relate to all employees, including executives. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

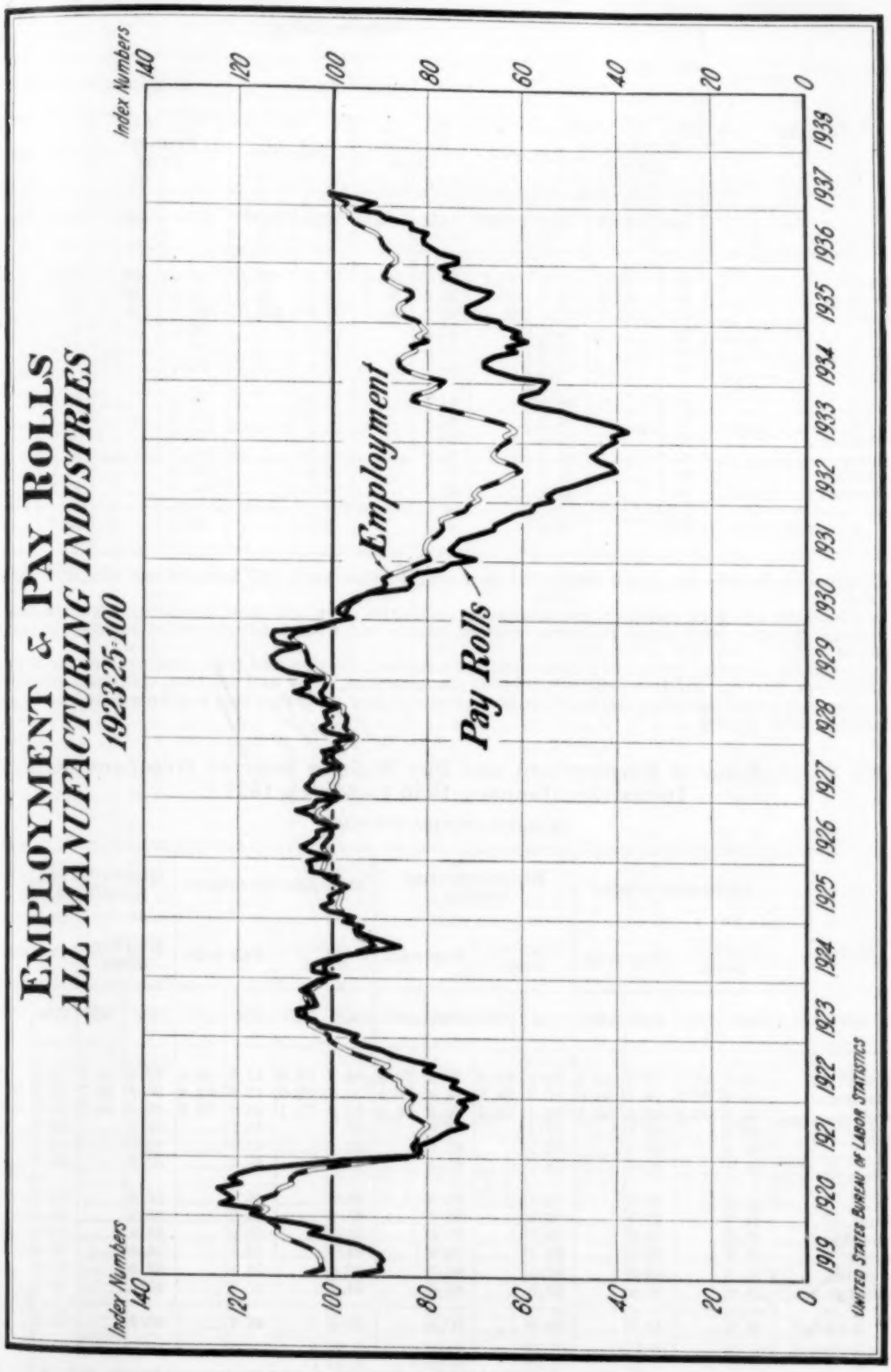
EMPLOYMENT & PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Employment
Pay Rolls
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Table 3.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in the Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups, January 1936 to March 1937 [1]

[Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufacture—3-year average 1923–25=100]

Month	Manufacturing											
	Total				Durable goods [2]				Nondurable goods [3]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	86.8	96.5	73.8	90.7	78.7	90.4	66.9	86.6	95.4	103.0	82.5	96.0
February	86.9	99.0	73.7	95.8	78.6	93.2	66.6	92.5	95.8	105.2	82.7	99.9
March	87.9	101.1	77.6	101.1	80.2	96.4	71.8	100.0	96.1	106.1	84.9	102.6
April	89.1	.....	79.3	.....	82.3	.....	76.0	.....	96.3	.....	83.5	.....
May	89.8	.....	80.8	.....	84.0	.....	78.5	.....	96.0	.....	83.8	.....
June	90.1	.....	81.1	.....	84.7	.....	79.0	.....	95.9	.....	83.9	.....
July	91.2	.....	80.2	.....	84.6	.....	75.9	.....	98.2	.....	85.6	.....
August	93.5	.....	83.5	.....	84.7	.....	77.0	.....	102.8	.....	91.8	.....
September	95.5	.....	83.6	.....	85.7	.....	77.2	.....	105.9	.....	91.6	.....
October	96.7	.....	89.0	.....	89.2	.....	85.3	.....	104.7	.....	93.7	.....
November	96.9	.....	90.7	.....	91.0	.....	88.9	.....	103.3	.....	92.9	.....
December	98.1	.....	95.2	.....	92.7	.....	93.4	.....	104.0	.....	97.5	.....
Average	91.9	.....	82.4	.....	84.7	.....	78.0	.....	99.5	.....	87.9	.....

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years will be found in the April 1937 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.

[3] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

Table 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to March 1937 [1]

[12-month average 1929=100]

Month	Anthracite mining				Bituminous-coal mining				Metalliferous mining				Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	59.1	54.1	54.4	42.7	79.8	84.6	70.6	79.9	54.2	66.8	41.7	58.4	39.4	45.7	25.5	34.6
February	61.2	52.7	76.7	41.0	80.2	84.8	78.4	82.4	55.5	69.6	42.8	63.4	36.9	46.7	23.9	37.8
March	52.5	48.9	42.6	37.8	80.4	85.9	70.2	88.4	55.9	73.1	45.1	70.6	42.2	49.1	30.9	41.3
April	49.8	.....	28.6	.....	77.5	.....	62.6	.....	57.5	.....	45.5	.....	48.4	.....	36.1	.....
May	54.9	.....	56.3	.....	76.2	.....	62.2	.....	60.8	.....	47.7	.....	52.0	.....	42.1	.....
June	51.2	.....	42.0	.....	75.7	.....	61.5	.....	61.9	.....	48.2	.....	53.5	.....	44.0	.....
July	48.4	.....	37.2	.....	75.5	.....	62.6	.....	61.3	.....	46.1	.....	54.4	.....	43.9	.....
August	41.1	.....	31.4	.....	76.9	.....	65.4	.....	61.6	.....	48.2	.....	55.3	.....	46.2	.....
September	47.6	.....	34.9	.....	78.2	.....	71.0	.....	63.1	.....	50.0	.....	54.9	.....	44.8	.....
October	49.9	.....	48.5	.....	81.1	.....	79.2	.....	64.2	.....	53.7	.....	54.6	.....	46.2	.....
November	51.5	.....	40.3	.....	82.3	.....	80.7	.....	62.9	.....	54.6	.....	52.6	.....	43.5	.....
December	54.8	.....	55.4	.....	83.9	.....	85.0	.....	64.4	.....	57.7	.....	49.4	.....	39.4	.....
Average	51.8	.....	45.7	.....	79.0	.....	70.8	.....	60.3	.....	48.4	.....	49.5	.....	38.9	.....

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years for all of these industries, except year-round hotels, will be found in the February 1935 and subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable indexes for year-round hotels will be found in the September 1935 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Table 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to March 1937—Continued

Month	Crude-petroleum producing				Telephone and telegraph				Electric light and power, and manufactured gas				Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [1]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	71.1	72.7	55.7	61.0	70.1	74.4	75.0	83.8	86.1	92.1	84.8	92.3	70.7	72.5	65.0	68.0
February	70.8	73.5	55.7	63.8	69.9	74.8	76.2	82.3	86.1	92.0	84.7	93.3	71.7	72.5	68.3	68.7
March	70.9	74.3	56.0	63.7	70.2	75.4	77.2	86.9	86.8	92.2	85.9	94.5	71.2	72.6	67.8	69.2
April	71.3	-----	57.1	-----	70.8	-----	76.0	-----	88.0	-----	86.2	-----	71.3	-----	65.9	-----
May	72.7	-----	58.0	-----	71.6	-----	78.5	-----	89.0	-----	87.0	-----	71.5	-----	66.1	-----
June	73.7	-----	58.9	-----	72.1	-----	77.4	-----	90.4	-----	88.1	-----	71.7	-----	66.8	-----
July	75.4	-----	60.4	-----	73.1	-----	79.9	-----	91.7	-----	89.8	-----	72.4	-----	66.5	-----
August	75.0	-----	59.7	-----	73.5	-----	81.2	-----	93.1	-----	89.8	-----	72.4	-----	66.5	-----
September	74.5	-----	60.4	-----	73.7	-----	78.8	-----	93.5	-----	91.4	-----	72.8	-----	66.4	-----
October	73.6	-----	59.6	-----	73.8	-----	83.1	-----	94.0	-----	92.7	-----	73.1	-----	67.7	-----
November	73.2	-----	60.1	-----	73.7	-----	81.6	-----	93.5	-----	91.8	-----	73.0	-----	69.7	-----
December	72.4	-----	61.3	-----	73.6	-----	82.4	-----	93.2	-----	93.8	-----	72.5	-----	69.3	-----
Average	72.9	-----	58.6	-----	72.2	-----	78.9	-----	90.5	-----	88.8	-----	72.0	-----	67.2	-----

Month	Wholesale trade				Total retail trade				Retail trade—general merchandising				Retail trade—other than general merchandising			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	85.6	90.7	66.6	72.6	80.4	85.4	62.1	68.0	88.2	95.1	76.4	83.8	78.4	82.9	59.1	64.7
February	85.0	92.0	66.6	74.1	79.7	85.2	61.6	67.9	85.1	93.9	73.9	82.9	78.3	82.9	59.1	64.8
March	85.6	92.1	69.0	75.0	81.9	88.5	63.5	70.5	90.9	100.3	77.3	87.6	79.5	85.4	60.7	67.0
April	85.7	-----	67.9	-----	85.2	-----	65.3	-----	97.4	-----	81.0	-----	82.0	-----	62.1	-----
May	84.6	-----	68.2	-----	85.0	-----	65.8	-----	95.5	-----	80.8	-----	82.3	-----	62.7	-----
June	84.6	-----	68.4	-----	85.5	-----	66.4	-----	96.4	-----	81.3	-----	82.6	-----	63.3	-----
July	85.4	-----	69.0	-----	83.2	-----	65.1	-----	90.7	-----	77.3	-----	81.2	-----	62.6	-----
August	86.3	-----	69.7	-----	82.4	-----	64.4	-----	89.4	-----	76.4	-----	80.5	-----	61.9	-----
September	88.0	-----	70.5	-----	86.6	-----	66.6	-----	98.5	-----	82.8	-----	83.5	-----	63.3	-----
October	89.0	-----	71.5	-----	88.7	-----	68.3	-----	103.9	-----	87.2	-----	84.7	-----	64.4	-----
November	89.7	-----	73.1	-----	90.1	-----	70.1	-----	109.3	-----	91.4	-----	85.1	-----	65.7	-----
December	91.0	-----	72.8	-----	99.6	-----	75.9	-----	143.4	-----	116.2	-----	88.1	-----	67.6	-----
Average	86.7	-----	69.4	-----	85.7	-----	66.3	-----	99.1	-----	83.5	-----	82.2	-----	62.7	-----

Month	Year-round hotels				Laundries				Dyeing and cleaning			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	81.9	85.5	64.9	70.4	81.5	88.5	68.3	76.4	71.5	76.8	51.6	55.6
February	82.8	86.4	66.5	72.5	81.2	88.6	67.8	76.3	70.3	76.2	49.0	54.6
March	82.8	86.9	66.0	72.7	82.1	88.7	69.9	77.5	74.7	81.1	56.4	61.7
April	83.2	-----	66.3	-----	83.2	-----	70.9	-----	81.8	-----	64.1	-----
May	84.1	-----	67.0	-----	85.5	-----	75.6	-----	87.3	-----	72.2	-----
June	83.9	-----	66.6	-----	87.2	-----	75.8	-----	87.5	-----	69.2	-----
July	83.3	-----	66.0	-----	90.5	-----	79.0	-----	85.5	-----	64.8	-----
August	83.2	-----	66.1	-----	89.6	-----	76.7	-----	83.5	-----	63.2	-----
September	84.2	-----	67.5	-----	89.6	-----	76.6	-----	86.7	-----	66.1	-----
October	85.4	-----	69.6	-----	87.6	-----	75.3	-----	86.5	-----	66.7	-----
November	84.6	-----	69.6	-----	87.0	-----	74.5	-----	81.3	-----	60.2	-----
December	84.0	-----	69.8	-----	87.6	-----	76.1	-----	77.7	-----	57.3	-----
Average	83.6	-----	67.2	-----	86.1	-----	73.9	-----	81.2	-----	61.7	-----

[1] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing; see transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

Trend of Industrial and Business Employment, by States

A COMPARISON of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in February and March 1937, is shown in table 5 for all groups combined, and for all manufacturing industries combined, based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 89 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries and each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 except building construction.

Table 5.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in February and March 1937, by Geographic Divisions and by States

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic divison and State	Total—All groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
New England	**13,784**	**952,895**	**+1.1**	**22,415,985**	**+2.6**	**3,505**	**677,016**	**+0.9**	**15,620,871**	**+2.8**
Maine	786	60,745	+.5	1,283,000	+.1	282	50,440	—(1)	1,037,537	—.7
New Hampshire	604	39,846	—.1	840,157	+1.4	204	32,803	—.2	671,660	+1.0
Vermont	474	19,095	+1.4	428,219	+2.9	145	12,646	+2.0	281,388	+3.2
Massachusetts	[2] *8,473*	*511,119*	*+1.6*	*12,140,630*	*+3.2*	*1,695*	*315,167*	*+1.7*	*7,313,700*	*+4.0*
Rhode Island	1,278	101,342	—1.2	2,222,747	—.8	429	81,616	—2.2	1,723,278	—1.8
Connecticut	2,169	220,748	+1.3	5,501,232	+3.6	750	184,344	+1.4	4,593,308	+3.9
Middle Atlantic	**34,859**	**2,280,792**	**+1.5**	**61,536,357**	**+3.7**	**5,224**	**1,280,384**	**+2.0**	**33,985,191**	**+4.8**
New York	23,075	1,036,485	+2.2	29,086,989	+4.3	[3] *2,079*	*472,125*	*+2.8*	*13,115,465*	*+6.2*
New Jersey	4,102	349,529	+1.0	9,159,090	+3.4	[4] *854*	*264,220*	*+1.1*	*6,730,430*	*+3.6*
Pennsylvania	7,682	894,778	+.7	23,290,278	+2.9	*2,311*	*544,039*	[5] *+1.2*	*14,139,296*	[5] *+3.7*
East North Central	**21,754**	**2,361,611**	**+1.7**	**66,447,197**	**+4.9**	**7,498**	**1,788,123**	**—1.3**	**51,586,295**	**+2.3**
Ohio	8,155	663,388	+2.0	18,633,366	+4.7	2,550	499,316	+1.6	14,529,479	+5.4
Indiana	*2,492*	*276,358*	*+.2*	*7,393,529*	*+3.9*	*903*	*228,317*	*—.4*	*6,277,695*	*+3.9*
Illinois	[6] *6,295*	*642,830*	*+2.1*	*17,106,739*	*+3.4*	*2,403*	*452,593*	*+2.2*	*12,079,105*	*+4.0*
Michigan	3,834	585,880	+1.0	18,251,331	+6.7	*916*	*447,811*	*—9.4*	*14,425,815*	*—3.9*
Wisconsin	[7] *978*	*193,155*	*+3.5*	*5,062,232*	*+5.9*	[8] *726*	*160,086*	[5] *+3.2*	*4,276,201*	[5] *+4.8*
West North Central	**12,004**	**439,643**	**+2.0**	**10,573,849**	**+4.2**	**2,456**	**221,509**	**+1.5**	**5,351,891**	**+5.4**
Minnesota	2,222	89,029	+2.4	2,225,301	+3.3	432	42,258	+1.4	1,059,118	+4.4
Iowa	1,863	66,784	+1.2	1,590,288	+3.4	426	39,306	+1.2	963,587	+4.4
Missouri	3,108	181,037	+2.4	4,364,546	+5.5	887	101,258	+1.8	2,386,229	+6.6
North Dakota	632	5,145	+2.0	121,382	—1.0	57	688	+2.4	19,763	+.6
South Dakota	576	8,024	+.1	206,184	+5.2	41	2,260	+3.1	55,442	+13.7
Nebraska	1,568	32,887	+2.0	767,224	+3.8	162	11,558	+1.6	280,523	+3.5
Kansas	[9] *2,035*	*56,737*	[10] *+1.0*	*1,298,924*	[10] *+3.6*	*451*	*24,181*	*+.7*	*587,229*	*+4.4*

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 5.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in February and March 1937, by Geographic Divisions and by States—Con.

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic divison and State	Total—All groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
South Atlantic	**11,210**	**886,838**	**+1.8**	**17,937,718**	**+4.3**	**2,764**	**588,897**	**+2.0**	**11,048,232**	**+4.1**
Delaware	201	16,093	+2.9	402,504	+4.6	84	12,339	+3.6	304,050	+6.0
Maryland	*1,559*	*132,691*	*+2.9*	*3,251,528*	*+7.3*	*553*	*91,961*	[5] *+3.1*	*2,258,030*	[5] *+8.1*
District of Columbia	1,089	41,730	+2.1	1,065,824	+2.4	38	3,883	+1.2	130,115	+1.7
Virginia	2,190	111,144	+1.0	2,212,121	+2.0	462	75,255	+.8	1,476,154	+1.9
West Virginia	1,276	160,580	+1.9	4,203,748	+7.5	254	62,476	+2.7	1,618,615	+5.5
North Carolina	1,471	168,435	+.8	2,673,501	+1.0	584	154,808	+1.0	2,432,239	+1.0
South Carolina	765	77,362	+3.0	1,156,311	+2.4	206	69,067	+2.9	1,001,087	+2.2
Georgia	1,557	121,882	+2.5	2,034,952	+4.4	384	94,765	+2.6	1,442,258	+4.7
Florida	1,102	56,921	−.5	957,229	+.2	199	24,343	+1.0	385,684	+3.8
East South Central	**4,282**	**305,832**	**+3.7**	**5,819,965**	**+11.2**	**999**	**197,215**	**+3.9**	**3,577,374**	**+8.1**
Kentucky	1,279	87,070	+6.7	1,953,336	+30.1	299	39,264	+10.1	891,635	+25.5
Tennessee	1,272	107,409	+2.7	1,952,130	+4.1	376	81,223	+2.8	1,425,981	+4.3
Alabama	1,238	95,682	+2.4	1,659,596	+3.4	243	66,806	+2.0	1,106,856	+2.8
Mississippi	493	15,671	+2.2	254,903	+.8	81	9,922	+2.1	152,902	−.8
West South Central	**4,499**	**202,813**	**+1.8**	**4,505,356**	**+4.1**	**1,104**	**104,020**	**+1.8**	**2,169,792**	**+5.1**
Arkansas	[11] *378*	*23,570*	*+1.3*	*419,221*	*+2.6*	*167*	*17,193*	*+.5*	*287,701*	*+4.2*
Louisiana	1,015	48,686	+1.5	926,491	+2.9	238	27,135	+2.4	462,692	+5.8
Oklahoma	1,353	40,651	+2.4	986,572	+4.7	143	12,086	+3.0	279,833	+6.0
Texas	[12] *1,753*	*89,906*	*+1.7*	*2,173,072*	*+4.8*	*556*	*47,606*	*+1.6*	*1,139,566*	*+4.9*
Mountain	**4,444**	**134,561**	**+2.9**	**3,585,109**	**+3.1**	**591**	**37,836**	**+5.1**	**984,086**	**+5.7**
Montana	707	21,122	+6.1	656,373	+10.2	84	4,917	+11.2	143,628	+18.7
Idaho	488	9,579	+6.9	238,425	+7.5	57	2,774	+21.2	64,538	+13.4
Wyoming	334	9,298	+.6	269,622	−4.4	41	1,660	+3.4	52,238	+4.3
Colorado	1,263	43,134	+1.6	1,085,642	−.8	199	16,406	+3.9	432,492	+2.4
New Mexico	331	7,525	+1.0	172,262	−1.3	33	1,105	−3.6	18,885	−5.1
Arizona	487	19,528	+4.4	527,003	+6.8	41	3,068	+3.4	74,765	+2.8
Utah	619	21,114	+1.5	538,938	+2.9	108	6,856	+1.3	165,290	+4.1
Nevada	215	3,261	+2.4	96,844	+8.0	28	1,050	+4.7	32,250	+9.4
Pacific	**9,765**	**449,856**	**+3.1**	**12,400,446**	**+7.6**	**2,570**	**255,163**	**+5.6**	**7,142,790**	**+10.6**
Washington	3,173	101,863	+7.0	2,725,689	+11.7	567	57,315	+10.7	1,500,567	+19.1
Oregon	1,353	53,281	+7.2	1,354,440	+13.2	302	31,351	+11.5	761,847	+20.6
California	[13] *5,239*	*294,712*	*+1.2*	*8,320,317*	*+5.5*	*1,701*	*166,497*	*+2.9*	*4,880,376*	*+6.9*

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[2] Includes banks and trust companies; construction; municipal, agricultural, and office employment; amusement and recreation; professional services; and trucking and handling.
[3] Includes laundering and cleaning, and water, light, and power.
[4] Includes laundries.
[5] Weighted percentage change.
[6] Includes automobile, and miscellaneous services, restaurants, and building and contracting.
[7] Includes construction, but not hotels and restaurants, or public works.
[8] Does not include logging.
[9] Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.
[10] Percentages weighted. Agricultural figures are not included in employment and pay-roll totals nor in percentage change for pay roll, but are included in percentage change for employment.
[11] Includes automobile dealers and garages, and sand, gravel, and building stone.
[12] Includes business and personal service and real estate.
[13] Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

Industrial and Business Employment and Pay Rolls in Principal Cities

A COMPARISON of March 1937 employment and pay rolls with the February totals in 13 cities of the United States having a population of 500,000 or over is made in table 6. The changes are computed from reports received from identical establishments in both months.

In addition to reports included in the several industrial groups regularly covered in the survey by the Bureau, reports have also been secured from establishments in other industries for inclusion in these city totals. As information concerning employment in building construction is not available for all cities at this time, figures for this industry have not been included in these city totals.

Table 6.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in February and March 1937, by Principal Cities

City	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) March 1937	Percentage change from February 1937
New York, N. Y.	17,166	723,066	+1.9	$20,056,595	+4.2
Chicago, Ill.	4,473	494,019	+2.0	13,813,717	+2.7
Philadelphia, Pa.	2,487	231,036	+1.6	6,162,341	+3.2
Detroit, Mich.	1,630	377,519	−4.1	12,034,996	−1.9
Los Angeles, Calif.	2,795	160,397	+.2	4,486,709	+4.4
Cleveland, Ohio	1,759	149,611	+5.5	4,249,687	+8.1
St. Louis, Mo.	1,569	143,408	+2.3	3,619,255	+5.3
Baltimore, Md.	1,240	103,560	+3.5	2,595,212	+7.9
Boston, Mass.	3,873	194,218	+1.4	4,842,947	+2.9
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1,373	217,479	+1.6	6,357,486	+3.9
San Francisco, Calif.	1,693	91,160	+4.5	2,653,924	+9.3
Buffalo, N. Y.	943	76,679	+3.6	2,166,473	+7.7
Milwaukee, Wis.	638	86,764	+4.4	2,358,973	+7.8

BUILDING OPERATIONS

Summary of Building Construction in Principal Cities, April 1937 [1]

IN APRIL building construction activity, measured by the value of permits issued, registered a small increase. Permit valuations were 2.1 percent greater in April than in the preceding month. New residential construction showed a very moderate increase of 3.5 percent and additions, alterations, and repairs gained 17.9 percent. These increases in activity, however, were partially offset by a drop of 8.9 percent in the value of permits issued for new nonresidential construction.

Compared with April 1936, the permit value of building construction showed impressive gains in all classes of construction. The estimated cost of new residential construction increased 65.3 percent; additions, alterations, and repairs, 40.4 percent; and new nonresidential construction, 22.8 percent. The gain in the total value of permits issued for all classes of building construction over the corresponding month of last year was 45.5 percent.

Comparisons of April 1937 with March 1937 and April 1936

A SUMMARY of building construction in 1,474 identical cities in April 1936 and March and April 1937 is given in table 1.

Table 1.—Summary of Building Construction in 1,474 Identical Cities

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Estimated cost		
	April 1937	Percentage change from—		April 1937	Percentage change from—	
		March 1937	April 1936		March 1937	April 1936
All construction	69,354	+17.9	+21.6	$174,843,461	+2.1	+45.5
New residential	15,100	+6.2	+47.0	88,105,967	+3.5	+65.3
New nonresidential	12,844	+28.1	+23.5	50,062,290	−8.9	+22.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs	41,410	+19.8	+13.9	36,675,204	+17.9	+40.4

A summary of the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and of the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 1,474 identical

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, April 1937", copies of which will be furnished upon request.

cities having a population of 2,500 and over is shown in table 2 for the months of April 1936 and March and April 1937.

Table 2.—Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,474 Identical Cities

Type of dwelling	Estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	April 1937	Percentage change from—		April 1937	Percentage change from—	
		March 1937	April 1936		March 1937	April 1936
All types	$86,828,995	+3.0	+66.2	21,287	+1.1	+65.1
1-family	63,496,869	+6.8	+48.1	13,888	+5.6	+45.5
2-family [1]	4,015,458	+21.9	+63.0	1,317	+12.8	+48.5
Multifamily [2]	19,316,668	−10.2	+179.7	6,082	−9.7	+147.0

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, March and April 1937

THE estimated cost of building construction for which permits were issued in the 1,474 identical cities reporting for the months of March and April 1937, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by population groups, is given in table 3.

Table 3.—Estimated Cost of Building Construction and Number of Families Provided for in New Dwellings in 1,474 Identical Cities, by Size of City, March and April, 1937

Population group	Total building construction			Number of families provided for in—							
	Apr. 1937	Mar. 1937	Percentage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
				Apr. 1937	Mar. 1937	Apr. 1937	Mar. 1937	Apr. 1937	Mar. 1937	Apr. 1937	Mar. 1937
Total, all groups	$174,843,461	$171,188,123	+2.1	21,287	21,046	13,888	13,146	1,317	1,168	6,082	6,732
500,000 and over	62,960,966	73,399,337	−14.2	7,922	9,176	3,383	3,428	363	251	4,176	5,497
100,000 and under 500,000	37,489,032	34,800,008	+7.7	4,198	3,700	3,023	2,938	309	303	866	459
50,000 and under 100,000	19,334,834	13,695,374	+41.2	1,904	1,699	1,363	1,352	188	178	353	169
25,000 and under 50,000	16,188,523	14,708,890	+10.1	1,768	1,594	1,521	1,292	146	122	101	180
10,000 and under 25,000	22,377,582	20,887,547	+7.1	3,022	2,732	2,548	2,306	202	162	272	264
5,000 and under 10,000	10,384,893	8,626,453	+20.4	1,531	1,297	1,202	1,066	75	96	254	135
2,500 and under 5,000	6,107,631	5,070,514	+20.5	942	848	848	764	34	56	60	28

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 4 Months, 1936 and 1937

CUMULATIVE totals for the first 4 months of 1937 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 4. The

data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

Table 4.—Estimated Cost of Building Construction in Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, First 4 Months of 1936 and 1937, by Class of Construction

Class of construction	Estimated cost of building construction		
	First 4 months of—		Percentage change
	1937	1936	
All construction	$573,123,030	$412,443,323	+39.0
New residential	276,790,104	164,332,273	+68.4
New nonresidential	177,297,479	161,826,549	+9.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	119,035,447	86,284,501	+38.0

Table 5 presents the estimated cost and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 2,500 and over, for the first 4 months of 1936 and 1937.

Table 5.—Estimated Cost and Number of Families Provided for in Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, First 4 Months of 1936 and 1937, by Type of Dwelling

Type of dwelling	Housekeeping dwellings					
	Estimated cost			Number of families provided for		
	First 4 months of—		Percentage change	First 4 months of—		Percentage change
	1937	1936		1937	1936	
All types	$273,466,967	$161,697,930	+69.1	68,596	39,586	+73.3
1-family	189,368,942	120,457,037	+57.2	41,883	27,009	+55.1
2-family [1]	11,704,060	6,408,474	+82.6	4,114	2,405	+71.1
Multifamily [2]	72,393,965	34,832,419	+107.8	22,599	10,172	+122.2

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued during April 1936 and during March and April 1937 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 1,474 identical cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics direct from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The cost figures shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the

Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts awarded for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered. Information concerning public building is collected by the Bureau from the various Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. The information concerning public building is then added to the data concerning private construction received from local building officials. In April 1936 the value of Federal and State buildings for which contracts were awarded in these 1,474 cities amounted to $1,367,000, in March 1937 to $6,230,000, and in April 1937 to $6,390,000.

Construction from Public Funds

THE value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during April 1936 and March and April 1937 on various types of construction projects financed from Federal funds is shown in table 6.

Table 6.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed From Federal Funds, March and April 1937 and April 1936

Federal agency	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	April 1937 [1]	March 1937 [2]	April 1936 [2]
Total	[3] $67,744,073	[4] $74,175,710	[5] $96,885,085
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	986,202	606,558	2,709,526
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	1,518,292	[6] 3,764,806	12,882,777
E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 [7]	[3] 21,202,765	[5] 23,478,333	[5] 31,324,279
Federal projects under The Works Program	7,120,651	8,295,747	31,855,450
Regular governmental appropriations	36,916,163	38,030,266	18,113,053

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.
[3] Includes $1,277,877 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).
[4] Includes $362,481 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).
[5] Includes $874,102 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).
[6] Includes $287,731 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).
[7] Includes First Deficiency Act funds, 1936.
[8] Includes $74,750 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).

The value of public-building and highway-construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for April 1936 and March and April 1937 is shown in table 7.

Table 7.—Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly From State Funds, March and April 1937 and April 1936

Type of project	Value of contracts		
	April 1937	March 1937	April 1936
Public buildings	$1,303,961	$469,155	$2,810,397
Highway construction	3,821,025	1,870,835	5,555,464

RETAIL PRICES

Summary—Food and Coal Prices

DURING April the retail cost of food increased 0.3 percent. Higher prices for meats and cereal products were compensated in part by the seasonal drop in the cost of dairy products. The food cost index is now 7.4 percent higher than it was a year ago, largely as a result of the advance in fruit and vegetable costs and egg prices. Retail coal prices showed very little change during the first quarter of 1937. Bituminous coal rose slightly, while the weighted average price of Pennsylvania anthracite moved slightly downward. The level of retail coal prices in March 1937 was approximately the same as it was in April 1936.

Food Prices in April 1937

RETAIL food costs rose 0.3 percent between March 16 and April 13, largely as a result of price increases for cereals and meat products.

The composite index for April 13 was 85.6 percent of the 1923–25 average. This represents an advance of 7.4 percent in comparison with the corresponding period of last year when the index was 79.7. Higher costs of fruits and vegetables and eggs contributed very largely to the increase. Despite this advance, however, the current level of food costs is 15.1 percent below April 1929 when the index was 100.8.

Details by Commodity Groups

THE cost of cereals and bakery products rose 0.9 percent from March 16 to April 13, due primarily to increases for white bread and flour. Higher prices for bread were reported in 28 of the 51 cities, and the average price showed a gain of 1.5 percent. Wheat-flour prices advanced 0.7 percent, with 17 cities reporting higher prices. Other significant price increases in this group were 1.9 percent for corn meal and 0.6 percent for wheat cereal

The 2.5 percent rise in meat costs was largely seasonal. Seventeen of the twenty-one items in the group were higher in price. The cost of beef increased 3.0 percent, and pork rose 1.6 percent. Prices for

the two fresh-pork items (chops and lion roast) advanced 3.8 percent and 4.1 percent, respectively. The largest price gains in the meat group were made by lamb items, with increases ranging from 6.3 percent for leg of lamb to 8.9 percent for rib chops.

Dairy products declined 2.4 percent, following their usual movement for this period of the year. Butter prices dropped 5.0 percent and were lower in 47 of the 51 reporting cities. The price of fresh milk was reduced 1 cent per quart by most of the reporting dealers in New York and New Orleans. Fresh cream prices fell 2.2 percent and evaporated milk declined 0.3 percent. The price of cheese did not change.

An increase of 0.7 percent in the price of eggs brought to an end the downward movement which began last November. Egg prices do not usually begin their spring advance until May.

The cost of fruits and vegetables decreased 0.5 percent, reversing the marked upward movement of the past 4 months. This decline was due to a drop of 0.7 percent in the combined cost of the fresh items. Canned fruits and vegetables increased 0.3 percent and the cost of dried items rose 0.5 percent. Price decreases for fresh items were most marked for lettuce, 17.2 percent; green beans, 16.8 percent; spinach, 5.4 percent; and celery, 4.0 percent. Potato prices were lower in 39 cities and showed an average decline of 1.8 percent. Decreases in the costs of fruits and vegetables were most marked in the Mountain and Pacific regions. All cities in the Middle Atlantic region reported higher costs for this group.

Beverages and chocolate costs were higher by 0.3 percent. Coffee and tea showed gains of 0.3 and 0.4 percent, respectively. The average price of chocolate increased 1.2 percent, but cocoa dropped 0.7 percent.

Fats and oils declined 0.1 percent. The most significant decreases reported were 2.3 percent for lard compounds and 0.6 percent for lard. Oleomargarine prices were 0.3 percent lower than on March 16. An increase of 1.8 percent was recorded for mayonnaise and of 1.0 percent for peanut butter.

The sugar and sweets index advanced 0.5 percent. The price of sugar was up 0.4 percent, with increases reported from 18 cities. Strawberry preserves rose 1.7 percent.

Indexes of retail food costs by major commodity groups for April and March 1937, together with corresponding indexes for April 1936, 1933, and 1929 are presented in table 1. The chart on page 1593 shows the relative changes in retail costs of all foods and of each of the commodity groups from January 1929 to April 1937, inclusive.

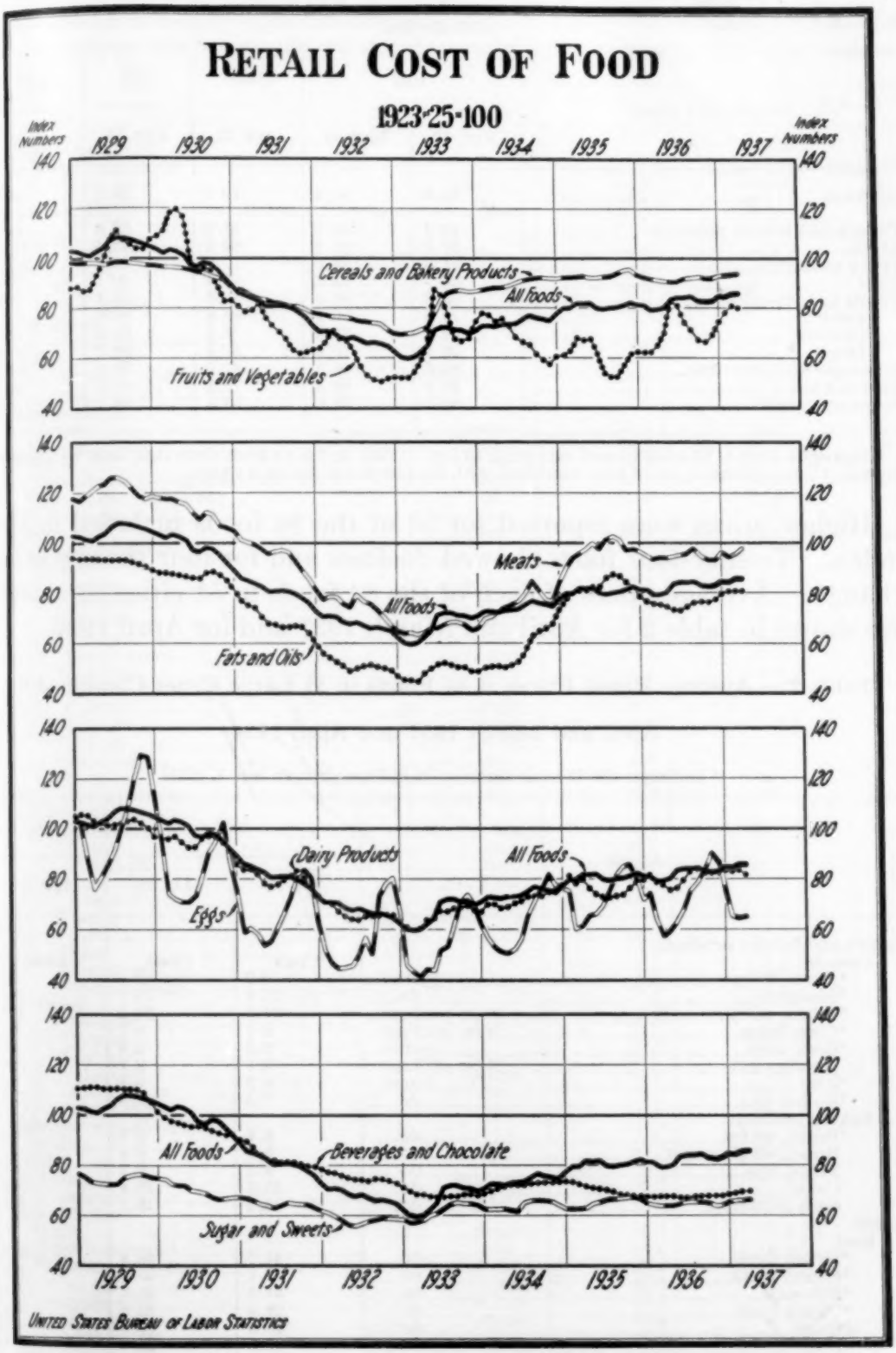
RETAIL COST OF FOOD
1923-25-100
Index Numbers
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
140
120
100
80
60
40
Cereals and Bakery Products
All Foods
Fruits and Vegetables
Meats
All Foods
Fats and Oils
Dairy Products
All Foods
Eggs
All Foods
Beverages and Chocolate
Sugar and Sweets
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Table 1.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,[1] by Commodity Groups

April 13 and March 16, 1937, and April 1936, 1933, and 1929

[1923–25=100]

Commodity group	1937		1936	1933	1929
	Apr. 13	Mar. 16	Apr. 21	Apr. 15	Apr. 15
All foods	85.6	85.4	79.7	60.1	100.8
Cereals and bakery products	93.8	92.9	91.2	69.8	98.2
Meats	97.7	95.4	94.1	63.4	120.7
Dairy products	81.6	83.6	77.8	60.4	102.9
Eggs	64.7	64.3	57.4	40.7	76.4
Fruits and vegetables	80.0	80.5	66.5	54.4	87.3
Fresh	79.5	80.1	65.8	54.0	85.1
Canned	82.8	82.6	78.3	65.2	97.3
Dried	76.4	76.0	57.7	48.2	101.7
Beverages and chocolate	69.6	69.3	67.5	68.4	111.0
Fats and oils	80.2	80.3	75.2	44.7	93.7
Sugar and sweets	66.0	65.6	63.8	58.1	72.8

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

Higher prices were reported for 56 of the 84 foods included in the index. Twenty-four foods showed declines and for four there was no change. Average prices of each of the 84 foods in 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for April and March 1937 and for April 1936.

Table 2.—Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined [1]

April and March 1937 and April 1936

[* Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Apr. 13	Mar. 16	Apr. 21
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Flour, wheat	pound	5.0	5.0	4.7
*Macaroni	do	15.4	15.4	14.9
*Wheat cereal	28-oz. package	24.3	24.2	24.3
*Corn flakes	8-oz. package	8.1	8.1	8.1
*Corn meal	pound	5.5	5.4	4.8
Hominy grits	24-oz. package	9.7	9.7	9.0
*Rice	pound	8.5	8.5	8.5
*Rolled oats	do	7.5	7.5	7.4
Bakery products:				
*Bread, white	do	8.4	8.3	8.2
Bread, whole wheat	do	9.5	9.4	9.2
Bread, rye	do	9.2	9.2	9.0
Cake	do	25.3	25.4	24.8
Soda crackers	do	18.2	18.1	18.1
Meats:				
Beef:				
*Sirloin steak	do	41.5	40.1	37.0
*Round steak	do	37.1	35.9	33.4
*Rib roast	do	31.6	30.6	29.4
*Chuck roast	do	24.3	23.8	22.4
*Plate	do	16.6	15.9	15.8
Liver	do	25.3	25.4	25.4
Veal:				
Cutlets	do	40.8	40.9	39.9
Pork:				
*Chops	do	34.4	33.1	33.7
Loin roast	do	28.1	27.0	28.2
*Bacon, sliced	do	39.9	39.9	40.9
Bacon, strip	do	34.5	34.3	35.7

[1] Prices for individual cities are combined with the use of population weights.

Table 2.—Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined—Con. April and March 1937 and April 1936—Continued

[* Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Apr. 13	Mar. 16	Apr. 21
Meats—Continued.				
Pork—Continued.		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Ham, sliced	pound	48.9	49.2	46.8
Ham, whole	do	29.7	29.9	30.6
Salt pork	do	25.4	25.1	24.6
Lamb:				
Breast	do	13.8	12.9	13.0
Chuck	do	23.8	22.3	22.4
*Leg	do	30.5	28.7	28.9
Rib chops	do	38.8	35.7	35.6
Poultry:				
*Roasting chickens	do	31.9	31.0	33.0
Fish:				
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	13.0	12.8	13.1
*Salmon, red	do	24.8	24.7	25.5
Dairy products:				
*Butter	pound	39.7	41.8	37.5
*Cheese	do	29.3	29.3	26.8
Cream	½ pint	14.8	15.1	14.9
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) [1]	quart	12.1	12.3	11.6
*Milk, fresh (delivered)	do	12.3	12.5	11.8
*Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	7.6	7.6	7.4
*Eggs	dozen	33.7	33.5	29.9
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	7.2	7.0	5.5
*Bananas	do	6.3	6.5	6.1
Lemons	dozen	31.2	30.7	28.4
*Oranges	do	37.6	36.0	29.6
Beans, green	pound	15.8	19.0	15.3
*Cabbage	do	4.3	4.0	4.3
Carrots	bunch	5.4	5.4	5.3
Celery	stalk	9.7	10.1	9.8
Lettuce	head	8.8	10.7	8.0
*Onions	pound	4.5	4.5	4.0
*Potatoes	do	3.7	3.8	2.9
Spinach	do	6.7	7.1	6.9
Sweetpotatoes	do	5.5	4.9	4.1
Canned:				
Peaches	no. 2½ can	19.1	18.9	17.7
Pears	do	22.2	22.4	22.2
Pineapple	do	22.6	22.6	22.3
Asparagus	no. 2 can	27.7	27.5	26.0
Beans, green	do	12.5	12.4	11.4
*Beans with pork	16-oz. can	7.9	7.8	7.1
*Corn	no. 2 can	13.3	13.1	11.2
*Peas	do	16.3	16.3	15.8
*Tomatoes	do	9.4	9.5	9.3
Tomato soup	10½-oz. can	8.2	8.2	8.1
Dried:				
Peaches	pound	17.5	17.5	17.2
*Prunes	do	10.7	10.7	9.5
*Raisins	15-oz. package	10.1	10.0	9.7
Black-eyed peas	pound	10.1	9.9	8.8
Lima beans	do	12.1	12.1	10.5
*Navy beans	do	10.8	10.7	5.6
Beverages and chocolate:				
*Coffee	pound	25.3	25.2	24.3
*Tea	do	71.9	71.6	67.8
Cocoa	8-oz. can	10.4	10.5	10.7
Chocolate	8-oz. package	16.9	16.7	16.5
Fats and oils:				
*Lard	pound	17.4	17.5	16.1
Lard compound	do	16.1	16.5	14.9
*Vegetable shortening	do	22.1	21.9	21.4
Salad oil	pint	25.7	25.7	24.7
Mayonnaise	½ pint	17.3	17.0	17.0
*Oleomargarine	pound	19.9	19.9	18.5
Peanut butter	do	19.7	19.5	19.0
Sugar and sweets:				
*Sugar	do	5.7	5.7	5.5
Corn sirup	24-oz. can	14.5	14.5	13.6
Molasses	18-oz. can	14.5	14.5	14.4
Strawberry preserves	pound	22.0	21.7	20.3

[1] Average prices of milk delivered by dairies and sold in grocery stores, weighted according to the relative proportion distributed by each method.

Details by Regions and Cities

THE advance of 0.3 percent in the composite index was the result of higher costs in 29 of the 51 cities included in the index. Food costs declined in 19 cities and in 3 there was no change. Food costs also rose in 6 of the 10 additional cities not included in the index, from which the Bureau collects prices. The other four cities reported lower costs.

The largest increases in food costs occurred in Detroit, 3.2 percent; Rochester, 2.1 percent; Buffalo, 2.0 percent; and Portland, Oreg., 1.9 percent. In all of these cities there was a marked increase in the prices of meats and fresh vegetables, particularly potatoes. The largest decrease, 1.5 percent, was reported for both Columbus, Ohio, and Butte. In each city there was a sharp drop in the cost of fresh vegetables. In addition, there was a substantial decline in butter prices in Columbus, Ohio, and egg prices in Butte.

Indexes of retail costs of foods, by regions and cities, are shown in table 3 for April and March 1937, and for April of earlier years.

Table 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities [1]

April and March 1937, and April 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	Apr. 13	Mar. 16	Apr. 21	Apr. 9	Apr. 15	Apr. 15	Apr. 15
Average: 51 cities combined	85.6	85.4	79.7	81.4	60.1	70.3	100.8
New England	**82.0**	**81.9**	**78.8**	**78.9**	**59.8**	**70.1**	**99.6**
Boston	79.3	79.3	77.2	77.4	58.7	68.5	99.2
Bridgeport	86.5	86.6	82.2	82.1	63.3	73.3	99.7
Fall River	84.9	84.6	80.3	78.9	57.8	69.1	100.2
Manchester	85.2	86.3	82.5	80.1	59.6	68.9	98.5
New Haven	87.0	87.4	82.2	82.2	62.6	75.0	101.4
Portland, Maine	84.2	83.3	78.7	79.5	61.4	72.9	100.3
Providence	83.7	82.7	78.7	78.7	59.3	69.1	98.5
Middle Atlantic	**85.1**	**85.0**	**81.0**	**82.1**	**61.3**	**72.1**	**100.8**
Buffalo	85.9	84.2	79.4	83.9	59.4	73.1	100.1
Newark	86.4	86.0	81.4	83.5	61.8	75.4	100.7
New York	84.1	84.3	81.8	82.7	63.4	73.6	101.4
Philadelphia	87.8	87.3	82.9	82.6	60.7	72.0	100.0
Pittsburgh	83.7	83.8	78.0	80.2	58.6	68.4	102.0
Rochester	87.6	85.8	79.9	81.5	57.6	69.4	97.9
Scranton	82.0	82.0	76.9	76.7	59.0	68.9	101.4
East North Central	**87.5**	**86.6**	**79.8**	**82.0**	**59.2**	**69.4**	**102.5**
Chicago	88.0	87.7	80.2	82.2	61.6	73.4	105.1
Cincinnati	88.9	89.6	82.3	85.4	60.5	69.8	104.7
Cleveland	85.2	83.9	79.8	81.7	57.0	66.9	98.9
Columbus, Ohio	86.1	87.5	80.1	84.2	58.6	70.1	99.6
Detroit	88.6	85.9	79.4	80.6	55.5	63.3	101.0
Indianapolis	87.9	87.9	78.3	79.8	56.6	68.5	102.3
Milwaukee	89.0	88.8	82.0	82.2	63.6	74.0	103.0
Peoria	88.4	88.1	79.5	82.8	61.2	69.5	100.2
Springfield, Ill	87.4	86.8	77.0	79.5	59.3	67.8	99.3

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

Table 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities—Continued

April and March 1937, and April 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929—Continued

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	Apr. 13	Mar. 16	Apr. 21	Apr. 9	Apr. 15	Apr. 15	Apr. 15
West North Central	**90.7**	**91.0**	**81.9**	**84.7**	**59.5**	**69.8**	**101.8**
Kansas City	89.7	90.2	79.8	83.9	62.2	70.3	100.3
Minneapolis	94.8	95.6	84.4	86.8	58.2	70.2	103.0
Omaha	87.3	86.4	79.5	83.8	56.8	67.5	99.7
St. Louis	91.3	91.9	83.5	85.0	60.0	70.6	103.5
St. Paul	90.4	90.4	80.8	83.5	58.4	69.3	100.5
South Atlantic	**84.5**	**84.2**	**79.0**	**79.6**	**58.4**	**68.4**	**98.7**
Atlanta	82.2	82.1	74.8	76.9	55.7	65.0	101.1
Baltimore	88.4	88.0	83.3	83.0	61.0	70.3	97.0
Charleston, S. C	84.2	83.9	79.4	78.1	58.1	69.6	99.4
Jacksonville	80.8	80.4	76.2	74.8	54.1	63.9	93.6
Norfolk	85.4	85.4	78.4	78.3	57.3	70.9	103.4
Richmond	81.9	82.4	74.5	75.6	56.2	66.2	98.2
Savannah	84.1	83.6	79.8	79.1	57.4	67.4	100.7
Washington, D. C	85.8	85.0	81.8	84.0	62.2	71.8	100.0
East South Central	**83.2**	**82.7**	**74.2**	**77.5**	**56.8**	**66.0**	**101.4**
Birmingham	79.6	78.8	70.0	71.9	54.1	63.6	98.3
Louisville	91.3	91.5	82.3	87.5	62.0	69.8	108.3
Memphis	84.4	84.0	77.1	80.5	57.4	68.1	100.7
Mobile	81.7	81.3	74.5	76.9	57.7	66.8	99.3
West South Central	**84.0**	**83.7**	**77.2**	**80.4**	**58.7**	**67.8**	**101.0**
Dallas	82.7	81.8	75.2	79.4	58.1	68.0	102.3
Houston	83.4	83.4	76.4	78.9	58.0	63.9	98.4
Little Rock	85.5	85.7	76.7	77.6	54.9	63.2	101.2
New Orleans	86.4	86.3	81.1	84.5	61.5	74.1	102.6
Mountain	**91.7**	**91.5**	**82.8**	**85.6**	**60.7**	**69.0**	**97.8**
Butte	84.0	85.3	77.8	77.4	58.0	66.9	98.1
Denver	94.5	93.9	85.1	89.1	63.3	71.0	98.3
Salt Lake City	88.6	89.0	80.3	81.8	57.2	66.4	96.7
Pacific	**85.3**	**85.6**	**77.0**	**80.5**	**61.9**	**70.0**	**98.9**
Los Angeles	82.3	83.4	72.2	76.3	58.3	64.4	97.2
Portland, Oreg	90.2	88.5	80.3	79.1	59.6	69.6	98.2
San Francisco	86.6	86.4	80.9	85.2	66.7	76.0	101.3
Seattle	88.4	88.9	79.8	81.7	62.4	71.9	98.1

The Bureau collects prices in 11 cities that cannot be included in the food cost indexes, since no prices are available for the base period 1923–25. These cities were selected from areas formerly not adequately represented in the indexes.

Average prices for each of these cities for which the data were available have been released since June 1935. Consumption weights have been provided for these cities, making it possible to measure changes in food costs from one period to another. Percentage changes in food costs between March and April 1937 are shown in table 4 for 10 of these cities.

Table 4.—Percentage Changes in Retail Food Costs for Specified Cities, Apr. 13, 1937, Compared with Mar. 16, 1937

Region and city	Percent of change Apr. 13, 1937, compared with Mar. 16, 1937								
	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables	Beverages and chocolate	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
West North Central:									
Cedar Rapids	+0.5	+0.2	+3.3	−1.6	+4.9	−0.8	+1.8	+0.1	−0.3
Sioux Falls	−1.0	+.1	+4.2	−5.4	+3.0	−3.2	+.2	−.4	+.1
Wichita	−1.3	+.6	+1.1	−2.3	+4.8	−1.1	+.6	−.3	+.2
South Atlantic:									
Columbia, S. C	+.8	+2.9	+.3	+.6	−.7	+.6	+.6	+.8	+.1
Winston-Salem	+.9	+1.1	+1.9	+.3	−3.8	+1.3	+.6	−.5	−.1
East South Central:									
Jackson	−1.3	−1.0	+.4	+.9	+1.0	−4.3	−2.2	−4.8	−.5
Knoxville	+2.5	+.6	+.9	−.3	−.7	+7.7	+.4	+2.3	−2.1
West South Central:									
El Paso	+.2	0	+3.5	−1.8	−.2	−.9	+1.7	+.8	−2.4
Oklahoma City	−2.0	+.8	+1.8	−9.5	+2.1	−2.2	+.3	+.4	−.2
Pacific:									
Spokane	+1.4	+.4	+6.1	−4.2	−3.0	+4.0	+1.0	+.5	+1.8

Coal Prices in March 1937

THERE was very little change in the level of retail coal prices in the larger cities of the United States between December 15, 1936, and March 15, 1937.

The average price of bituminous coal in 38 cities combined increased 0.5 percent, the index rising from 156.9 percent of the 1913 average on December 15 to 157.7 percent on March 15. The current level of prices is slightly less than 0.1 percent above the average for April 15, 1936, the pricing period which most nearly corresponds to 1 year ago.

From December 1936 to March 1937 the weighted average price of Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities combined declined 0.4 and 0.1 percent respectively for stove and pea sizes. The price of chestnut-size anthracite rose 0.1 percent. The stove size is now 0.4 percent below the level of last April. Chestnut prices, however, are 1.9 percent above the level which prevailed 11 months ago, while the price of the pea size has risen 6.4 percent.

Average retail prices for buckwheat-size Pennsylvania anthracite are published for the first time in this pamphlet. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has added this item to its retail-price-reporting service as a result of the increasing use of the smaller and less-expensive sizes of anthracite for household heating, particularly in connection with blowers and automatic stokers.

Retail prices of coal are collected quarterly from representative dealers in the 51 cities included in the retail food-price index. Quotations in each city are for the kinds of coal sold in considerable quantity for household use. The bituminous-coal-price series covers 38 cities, 14 of which report on low-volatile or smokeless coal as well as high

volatile. The Pennsylvania anthracite price series includes 25 cities; 6 western cities report on anthracite other than Pennsylvania.

Average retail prices of Pennsylvania anthracite and bituminous coal in 51 of the larger cities of the United States are presented in table 5 for March 1937 and December and April 1936.

Table 5.—Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined

March 1937, December and April 1936

Article	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price (1913=100)			Percentage change Mar. 15, 1937, compared with—	
	1937	1936		1937	1936		1936	
	Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15	Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15
Bituminous coal (38 cities)	$8.57	$8.53	$8.57	157.7	156.9	157.6	+0.5	0
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series: [1]								
Stove	11.75	11.80	11.80				−.4	−.4
Chestnut	11.82	11.81	11.61				+.1	+1.9
Pea	9.85	9.86	9.26				−.1	+6.4
Buckwheat	7.55	(2)	(2)					

[1] Weighted average of city prices, see Retail Prices, October 1936, p. 19.
[2] Insufficient data.

Details by Regions and Cities

Bituminous coal.—Between December 15 and March 15 price changes of more than 5 cents a ton were reported for only 12 of the 38 cities included in the bituminous-coal series. In 12 of these cities prices were at the same level on both dates. Five of the fourteen cities reporting on low-volatile or smokeless bituminous coal indicated price increases in excess of 5 cents a ton. Four of these cities were in the East North Central area. High-volatile bituminous-coal prices rose along with the low-volatile in these five and in five other widely scattered cities. The advance in Birmingham and Mobile was due primarily to the 2-percent sales tax which became effective on March 1. Significant reductions in bituminous-coal prices were reported for only two cities. Average retail prices in each of the 38 cities for March 1937 and December and April 1936, are shown in table 6.

Anthracite.—During the 3 months' interval ended March 15, 1937, Pennsylvania anthracite prices for the stove, chestnut, and pea sizes advanced in 6 of the 25 cities included in this series. Lower prices were reported for stove and chestnut sizes in five cities and for pea size in seven cities. The price increases were chiefly in New England and the reductions in the Middle Atlantic area. Outside these two regions there were few changes in Pennsylvania anthracite prices.

The March price of anthracite other than Pennsylvania was identical with the December price in each of the six western cities which report

on this grade of coal. Average retail prices of anthracite in each of the reporting cities for March 1937 and December and April 1936 are shown in table 7.

Table 6.—Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal Per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities

March 1937, December and April 1936

Region, city, and grade and size of coal	1937	1936	
	Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15
Middle Atlantic:			
Pittsburgh:			
Prepared sizes	$4.70	$4.70	$4.38
East North Central:			
Chicago:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	8.67	8.49	8.92
Low volatile	11.23	11.10	11.22
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	8.42	8.30	8.20
Cincinnati:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.78	6.32	5.85
Low volatile	8.71	8.24	7.86
Cleveland:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.85	6.90	6.91
Low volatile	9.85	9.85	9.80
Columbus:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.23	6.27	6.11
Low volatile	7.98	8.02	7.69
Detroit:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.17	7.10	7.40
Low volatile	8.36	8.30	8.63
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.60	7.60	7.92
Indianapolis:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	5.98	5.89	6.21
Low volatile	8.37	8.30	8.45
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.28	7.30	7.28
Milwaukee:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	8.67	8.67	8.42
Low volatile	11.42	11.42	11.43
Peoria:			
Prepared sizes	7.17	7.25	7.34
Springfield, Ill.:			
Prepared sizes	4.31	4.32	4.31
West North Central:			
Kansas City:			
Prepared sizes	5.96	6.00	5.85
Minneapolis:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	10.65	10.66	10.72
Low volatile	13.89	13.85	13.38
Omaha:			
Prepared sizes	8.97	8.79	8.74
St. Louis:			
Prepared sizes	5.47	5.46	5.76
St. Paul:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	10.51	10.51	10.49
Low volatile	13.93	13.89	13.41
South Atlantic:			
Atlanta:			
Prepared sizes	7.39	7.39	7.54
Baltimore:			
Prepared sizes:			
Low volatile	9.19	9.19	9.19
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.29	7.29	7.29
South Atlantic—Contd.			
Charleston, S. C.:			
Prepared sizes	$9.33	$9.33	$9.33
Jacksonville:			
Prepared sizes	11.25	11.25	10.25
Norfolk:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.50	7.50	7.50
Low volatile	9.50	9.50	9.50
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.50	7.50	7.50
Richmond:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.92	7.67	8.08
Low volatile	9.48	9.23	9.33
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.50	7.35	7.40
Savannah:			
Prepared sizes	[1] 9.21	[1] 9.24	[1] 9.28
Washington, D. C.:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	[2] 8.50	[2] 8.50	[2] 8.94
Low volatile	[2] 10.87	[2] 10.87	[2] 10.87
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	[2] 8.00	[2] 7.90	[2] 8.02
East South Central:			
Birmingham:			
Prepared sizes	6.59	6.36	5.75
Lousiville:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	5.61	5.62	6.02
Low volatile	8.00	8.00	8.13
Memphis:			
Prepared sizes	7.49	7.48	7.49
Mobile:			
Prepared sizes	9.27	9.11	8.76
West South Central:			
Dallas:			
Prepared sizes	10.29	10.43	10.29
Houston:			
Prepared sizes	11.71	11.71	11.50
Little Rock:			
Prepared sizes	8.35	8.40	8.44
New Orleans:			
Prepared sizes	10.96	10.96	10.60
Mountain:			
Butte:			
Prepared sizes	10.05	9.95	9.98
Denver:			
Prepared sizes	7.36	7.35	7.75
Salt Lake City:			
Prepared sizes	6.73	6.73	7.48
Pacific:			
Los Angeles:			
Prepared sizes	16.74	16.74	16.74
Portland, Oreg.:			
Prepared sizes	12.49	12.49	11.97
San Francisco:			
Prepared sizes	16.14	15.97	16.38
Seattle:			
Prepared sizes	10.08	10.07	10.11

[1] All coal sold in Savannah is weighed by the city. A charge of 10 cents per ton or half ton is made. This additional charge has been included in the above prices.

[2] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

Table 7.—Average Retail Prices of Anthracite Per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities

March 1937, December and April 1936

Region, city, and size of coal	1937	1936		Region, city, and size of coal	1937	1936	
	Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15		Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15
Pennsylvania anthracite							
New England:				Middle Atlantic—Con.			
Boston:				Scranton:			
Stove	$13.25	$13.00	$12.90	Stove	$7.56	$8.28	$7.74
Chestnut	13.25	13.00	12.90	Chestnut	7.56	8.28	7.49
Pea	11.45	11.20	11.15	Pea	6.28	6.99	6.00
Buckwheat	9.65			Buckwheat	4.75	4.75	
Bridgeport:				East North Central:			
Stove	12.50	12.50	13.00	Chicago:			
Chestnut	12.50	12.50	13.00	Stove	15.04	14.88	14.50
Pea	11.00	11.00	11.00	Chestnut	15.00	14.75	14.25
Buckwheat	9.00	9.00	9.00	Pea	13.71	13.58	12.96
Fall River:				Buckwheat	11.50		
Stove	14.00	13.75	13.75	Cleveland:			
Chestnut	13.75	13.50	13.50	Stove	13.65	13.65	13.65
Pea	11.00	10.75	11.25	Chestnut	13.65	13.65	13.39
Buckwheat	10.25	10.00		Detroit:			
Manchester:				Stove	12.40	12.40	12.66
Stove	14.33	14.50	14.83	Chestnut	12.40	12.40	12.40
Chestnut	14.33	14.50	14.83	Pea	10.88	10.90	11.12
Pea	12.50	12.50	13.00	Buckwheat	9.79	9.79	
Buckwheat	10.50			Milwaukee:			
New Haven:				Stove	14.00	14.00	14.25
Stove	13.50	13.35	13.55	Chestnut	14.00	14.00	14.00
Chestnut	13.50	13.35	13.55	Pea	13.00	13.00	12.75
Pea	11.50	11.80	11.25	Buckwheat	11.05	11.05	11.00
Buckwheat	9.08			West North Central:			
Portland, Maine:				Minneapolis:			
Stove	14.00	14.00	14.50	Stove	15.90	15.90	16.20
Chestnut	14.00	14.00	14.25	Chestnut	15.90	15.90	15.95
Pea	12.50	12.50	12.50	Pea	14.90	14.90	14.70
Buckwheat	10.75	10.75		Buckwheat	12.90	12.90	12.95
Providence:				St. Louis:			
Stove	14.44	14.25	14.75	Stove	14.52	14.52	14.46
Chestnut	14.44	14.31	14.50	Chestnut	14.27	14.27	14.21
Pea	12.19	12.00	12.25	Pea	12.18	12.31	11.62
Buckwheat	9.75	9.75		St. Paul:			
Middle Atlantic:				Stove	15.90	15.90	16.20
Buffalo:				Chestnut	15.90	15.90	15.95
Stove	12.00	12.50	12.50	Pea	14.90	14.90	14.70
Chestnut	12.00	12.50	12.42	Buckwheat	12.90	12.90	12.95
Pea	10.08	10.50	9.88	South Atlantic:			
Buckwheat	8.25	8.25	8.25	Baltimore:			
Newark:				Stove	11.09	11.50	11.75
Stove	11.75	11.75	11.45	Chestnut	10.89	11.25	11.50
Chestnut	11.75	11.75	11.20	Pea	8.98	9.50	9.75
Pea	10.25	10.25	9.45	Buckwheat	7.89		
Buckwheat	8.20	8.33	7.75	Norfolk:			
New York:				Stove	13.50	13.50	13.50
Stove	11.88	11.88	11.83	Chestnut	13.50	13.50	13.50
Chestnut	11.83	11.83	11.58	Pea	12.00	12.00	12.00
Pea	10.05	10.05	9.39	Buckwheat	10.00		
Buckwheat	7.42	7.55	7.54	Richmond:			
Philadelphia:				Stove	13.50	13.50	13.50
Stove	10.92	10.71	10.92	Chestnut	13.50	13.50	13.50
Chestnut	10.92	10.71	10.63	Pea	11.50	11.50	11.50
Pea	9.33	9.21	8.67	Buckwheat	10.25		
Buckwheat	7.83	7.75	7.75	Washington, D. C.:			
Pittsburgh:				Stove	[1] 13.00	[1] 13.00	[1] 13.50
Stove	12.88	12.88	12.75	Chestnut	[1] 13.00	[1] 13.00	[1] 13.20
Chestnut	12.88	12.88	12.88	Pea	[1] 11.20	[1] 11.02	[1] 10.90
Rochester:				Buckwheat	[1] 8.90	[1] 8.72	[1] 8.90
Stove	11.68	12.11	12.09				
Chestnut	11.68	12.11	11.84				
Pea	9.99	10.22	9.63				
Buckwheat	8.19						

[1] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

Table 7.—Average Retail Prices of Anthracite Per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities—Continued

March 1937, December and April 1936—Continued

Region, city, and size of coal	1937	1936		Region, city, and size of coal	1937	1936	
	Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15		Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Apr. 15
Anthracite, other than Pennsylvania							
West North Central:				Mountain:			
Kansas City:				Denver:			
Arkansas, furnace	$10.10	$10.10	[2] $10.61	Colorado, furnace	$15.81	$15.81	$15.81
stove	11.87	11.87	12.12	stove	15.81	15.81	15.81
West South Central:				Pacific:			
Dallas:				San Francisco:			
Arkansas, egg	13.25	13.25	13.25	New Mexico, egg	23.69	23.69	23.69
Houston:				Colorado, egg	23.69	23.69	23.69
Arkansas, egg	14.33	14.33	14.33				
Little Rock:							
Arkansas egg	9.00	9.00	10.25				

[2] Revised.

WHOLESALE PRICES

Wholesale Prices in April 1937

WHOLESALE commodity prices continued to move upward during April and showed an increase of 0.2 percent over the month of March. The index, which now stands at 88.0 percent of the 1926 average, has shown a steady rise since October 1936, when the index was 81.5. The advance brings the level of wholesale commodity prices to the highest point reached since May 1930. Prices have risen 8.0 percent since last October, and are now 47.2 percent above the low of February 1933.

Market prices of farm products and foods, which have risen steadily since last fall, showed a sharp decline. In contrast, average wholesale prices of hides and leather products, textiles, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, building materials, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities advanced sufficiently to counterbalance the decreases in the agricultural commodity groups and chemicals and drugs.

The rise in prices of finished, or wholly manufactured, commodities continued during April with an increase of 1.2 percent over the level for March. The index for raw materials, however, showed a decline of 1.6 percent and semimanufactured articles decreased fractionally. The indexes for both the special groups of "all commodities other than farm products" and "all commodities other than farm products and foods" rose sharply. Nonagricultural commodity prices increased 0.7 percent and prices of industrial commodities advanced 1.2 percent during the month of April.

The comparison of the April level of wholesale commodity prices with March 1937 and April 1936 is shown in table 1.

Table 1.—Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for April 1937 with March 1937 and April 1936

[1926=100]

Commodity groups	April 1937	March 1937	Change from a month ago	April 1936	Change from a year ago
			Percent		*Percent*
All commodities	88.0	87.8	+0.2	79.7	+10.4
Farm products	92.2	94.1	−2.0	76.9	+19.9
Foods	85.3	87.5	−2.5	80.2	+6.4
Hides and leather products	106.3	104.2	+2.0	94.6	+12.4
Textile products	79.5	78.3	+1.5	70.2	+13.2
Fuel and lighting materials	76.8	76.2	+0.8	76.4	+0.5
Metals and metal products	96.5	96.0	+0.5	86.6	+11.4
Building materials	96.7	95.9	+0.8	85.7	+12.8
Chemicals and drugs	86.9	87.5	−0.7	78.5	+10.7
Housefurnishing goods	89.0	88.4	+0.7	81.5	+9.2
Miscellaneous	81.1	79.5	+2.0	68.6	+18.2
Raw materials	88.7	90.1	−1.6	77.0	+15.2
Semimanufactured articles	89.5	89.6	−0.1	74.5	+20.1
Finished products	87.4	86.4	+1.2	81.6	+7.1
All commodities other than farm products	86.9	86.3	+0.7	80.1	+8.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	86.5	85.5	+1.2	78.9	+9.6

Wholesale Price Level In April

THE Bureau's wholesale commodity price index of all commodities averaged slightly higher for the month of April as compared with March of the present year. The weekly index numbers during the month showed a steady downward movement. Due to the sharp advance which occurred early in the month, the average for the month, however, remained slightly above that for the preceding month. Seven of the ten major commodity group classifications shared in the advance and brought the all-commodity index to 88 percent of the 1926 average, the highest level reached during the past 7 years. Compared with April of last year, the composite index of 784 price series shows an increase of 10.4 percent.

Higher index numbers were recorded for hides and leather products, textile products, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, building materials, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities during the month. Farm products, foods, and chemicals and drugs declined.

Fluctuations within the commodity groups that influenced the movement of the all-commodity index in April are shown in table 2.

Table 2.—Number of Items Changing in Price from March to April 1937

Commodity groups	Increases	Decreases	No change
All commodities	295	154	335
Farm products	26	36	5
Foods	23	58	41
Hides and leather products	29	0	12
Textile products	65	12	35
Fuel and lighting materials	12	7	5
Metals and metal products	57	21	52
Building materials	22	10	54
Chemicals and drugs	12	5	72
Housefurnishing goods	23	1	37
Miscellaneous	26	4	22

Compared with the level of a year ago substantial increases were shown for each of the 10 commodity groups except fuel and lighting materials. Average prices of fuel and lighting materials were 0.5 percent higher than a year ago. Increases over last April for the remaining nine groups ranged from 6.4 percent for foods to 19.9 percent for farm products.

Nonagricultural commodity prices, measured by the index for "all commodities other than farm products", advanced 0.7 percent during April to a point 8.5 percent above a year ago. The index for the large group, "all commodities other than farm products and foods", representing industrial commodity prices, rose 1.2 percent from March to April and was 9.6 percent above the level for April 1936.

Following the lead of farm products, wholesale prices of raw materials declined 1.6 percent during the month of April. The index for the month, 88.7, is 15.2 percent higher than a year ago. Prices of semimanufactured articles decreased fractionally but are 20.1 percent above the level of April 1936. By contrast, wholesale prices of finished, or fully manufactured, commodities advanced 1.2 percent, the index for the month, 87.4, being 7.1 percent above a year ago.

After reaching the highest level since April 1930, wholesale market prices of farm products began to decline steadily and continued downward to the fourth week in April when a slight upward reaction occurred. The subgroup of "other farm products", including potatoes, cotton, fresh milk, lemons, and wool, decreased 5.6 percent during the month. Livestock and poultry declined 0.2 percent. By contrast, market prices of grains averaged 5.3 percent higher. Sharp increases were reported for barley, corn, oats, oranges, timothy hay, peanuts, and sweetpotatoes. The April farm products index, 92.2, was 2.0 percent below the March level, but 19.9 percent above a year ago.

The index for foods dropped 2.5 percent as a result of sharp price reductions in prices of dairy products, fruits and vegetables, and "other foods", and smaller decreases in average prices of cereal products. The index for meats, on the other hand, increased 3.2 percent during April. Pronounced declines were reported in prices of butter, cheese, powdered milk, prunes, bananas, fresh mutton, cocoa beans, copra, lard, edible tallow, and vegetable oils. Among the more important items for which higher prices were reported were hominy grits, corn meal, fresh and cured beef, fresh lamb, dressed poultry, canned salmon, and glucose. The current food index, 85.3, which moved steadily downward throughout the month, was 6.4 percent above the index for the corresponding month of last year.

The level for the hides and leather products group rose 2.0 percent above the average for the preceding month. The index for the group, 106.3, was the highest reached in over 7 years and was 12.4 percent above April 1936. Average wholesale prices of shoes rose 1.5 percent,

hides and skins advanced 2.4 percent, and leather prices averaged 3.7 percent higher. "Other leather products", which includes gloves, harness, and luggage, increased 0.6 percent.

During April each of the subgroups comprising the textile products group showed higher average prices than for the previous month. The index for the group moved upward 1.5 percent and was 13.2 percent above the level for a year ago. Clothing advanced 2.5 percent; cotton goods, 1.2 percent; knit goods, 1.6 percent; silk and rayon, 0.5 percent; woolen and worsted, 1.0 percent; and the subgroup, "other textiles" (including rope, jute, hemp, and burlap), rose 3.5 percent. Individual items showing higher average prices of 3.0 percent or more were men's three-piece suits, top coats, dress trousers, duck, osnaburg, sheeting, underwear, rayon, burlap, manila hemp, raw jute, jute yarn, and manila rope.

Higher average prices for coke and petroleum products more than counterbalanced the seasonal decline in prices of anthracite and gas, resulting in a net increase of 0.8 percent in the index for fuel and lighting materials. Average prices for bituminous coal were slightly higher than for the month before.

The upward trend for the metals and metal products group continued through the second week in April when a slight recession occurred. The index for the month averaged 0.5 percent higher than the March level. Agricultural implements declined 1.1 percent and nonferrous metals fell 4.1 percent. On the other hand, average prices for iron and steel items advanced 2.2 percent and plumbing and heating increased 1.4 percent. Average prices of electrolytic copper, pig lead, pig (slab) zinc, and pig tin dropped sharply. Higher prices were reported for pumps, bar iron, steel barrels, ferromanganese, spiegeleisen, tin plate, and motortrucks.

The April building materials group index, 96.7, was the highest since the spring of 1929. Brick and tile prices averaged 3.4 percent higher; structural steel, 1.8 percent; lumber, 0.9 percent; and "other building materials", including prepared roofing, sand, gravel, and lime rose 0.9 percent. The level of cement prices and prices of paint and paint materials remained unchanged. Continued weakening prices for chemicals and lower prices for drugs and pharmaceuticals caused the chemicals and drugs group index to decline 0.7 percent. Average prices of fertilizer materials and mixed fertilizers were slightly higher than for the preceding month.

Advances in prices for both furniture and furnishings resulted in an 0.7-percent increase in the index for the housefurnishing goods group. The current index for the group was 89.0 percent of the 1926 average.

Wholesale prices of crude rubber declined 3.1 percent during the month of April. Cattle feed prices advanced 8.7 percent, automobile tires and tubes increased 2.4 percent, and average prices for paper

and pulp items rose 4.1 percent. The subgroup of "other miscellaneous" commodities, including wooden barrels, matches, garden hose, and cylinder oils, increased 0.6 percent.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for April and March 1937 and for April of each of the past 7 years are shown in table 3.

Table 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Groups and subgroups	Apr. 1937	Mar. 1937	Apr. 1936	Apr. 1935	Apr. 1934	Apr. 1933	Apr. 1932	Apr. 1931	Apr. 1930
All commodities	88.0	87.8	79.7	80.1	73.3	60.4	65.5	74.8	90.0
Farm products	92.2	94.1	76.9	80.4	59.6	44.5	49.2	70.1	95.8
Grains	119.2	113.2	73.9	87.9	58.8	44.8	44.5	59.5	84.1
Livestock and poultry	93.6	93.7	88.3	85.9	49.2	41.0	49.2	70.3	96.9
Other farm products	83.4	88.5	70.4	74.5	65.7	46.7	51.2	73.4	99.0
Foods	85.5	87.5	80.2	84.5	66.2	56.1	61.0	76.3	94.9
Dairy products	78.5	90.2	78.8	84.9	66.5	53.1	61.6	80.6	99.0
Cereal products	89.8	90.1	84.2	93.3	84.8	65.9	68.2	74.3	84.6
Fruits and vegetables	83.5	86.5	67.8	67.3	67.9	57.8	62.3	76.2	109.6
Meats	94.9	92.0	91.0	94.3	57.3	50.3	59.8	79.9	103.2
Other foods	77.0	78.2	72.4	76.2	62.1	56.6	55.8	69.9	82.5
Hides and leather products	106.3	104.2	94.6	86.3	88.9	69.4	75.0	87.5	102.7
Shoes	103.8	102.3	100.3	97.2	98.5	83.2	88.4	94.8	103.8
Hides and skins	121.4	118.5	90.1	71.2	76.7	45.8	40.8	62.0	95.8
Leather	100.7	97.1	84.5	74.9	78.4	57.2	67.2	88.4	105.3
Other leather products	102.3	101.7	95.4	84.6	86.7	77.2	98.0	101.6	105.7
Textile products	79.5	78.3	70.2	69.2	75.3	51.8	56.1	68.2	84.0
Clothing	86.8	84.8	80.8	78.5	85.7	61.4	64.9	76.9	87.2
Cotton goods	95.1	94.0	76.2	81.8	88.2	50.7	55.1	71.4	89.6
Knit goods	65.9	64.9	62.0	61.6	64.2	47.2	51.9	60.7	83.4
Silk and rayon	33.8	33.6	30.1	27.6	28.4	26.3	31.3	43.4	71.1
Woolen and worsted goods	93.5	92.6	82.2	73.1	82.0	53.3	59.7	69.0	80.7
Other textile products	68.8	66.5	67.5	67.5	78.9	67.5	68.2	76.2	87.7
Fuel and lighting materials	76.8	76.2	76.4	72.8	71.7	61.5	70.2	65.4	79.5
Anthracite	72.4	77.8	80.0	75.5	78.1	81.4	85.7	86.4	90.2
Bituminous coal	98.6	97.5	96.8	95.4	93.7	78.1	82.7	84.4	88.4
Coke	102.8	97.7	93.7	88.7	84.3	75.2	79.8	83.7	84.2
Electricity	[1]	[1]	82.8	87.8	88.3	98.3	103.5	93.7	92.3
Gas	[1]	79.8	84.8	88.0	92.2	97.5	99.1	96.1	95.2
Petroleum products	59.8	58.6	57.9	51.0	49.4	32.5	45.5	37.4	65.6
Metals and metal products	96.5	96.0	86.6	85.9	87.9	76.9	80.3	85.7	95.3
Agricultural implements	92.1	93.1	94.2	93.6	85.2	83.1	85.0	94.3	94.6
Iron and steel	99.6	97.5	86.3	86.0	87.3	75.7	80.1	84.1	90.8
Motor vehicles	93.7	93.0	94.0	93.6	97.8	90.4	93.8	94.5	102.8
Nonferrous metals	97.0	101.1	70.4	68.2	68.0	49.2	49.3	67.5	91.9
Plumbing and heating	78.7	77.6	73.8	67.1	76.2	59.4	64.4	86.6	96.2
Building materials	96.7	95.9	85.7	84.6	86.7	70.2	72.5	81.5	93.5
Brick and tile	94.9	91.8	89.0	89.7	90.7	75.0	78.4	83.9	92.0
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5	94.9	89.7	81.8	75.0	81.0	92.7
Lumber	103.0	102.1	83.2	79.9	87.2	57.9	60.0	73.4	91.3
Paint and paint materials	83.9	83.9	79.3	79.2	79.8	68.9	74.7	81.2	93.9
Plumbing and heating	78.7	77.6	73.8	67.1	76.2	59.4	64.4	86.6	96.2
Structural steel	114.9	112.9	92.0	92.0	86.8	81.7	81.7	84.3	91.9
Other building materials	99.9	98.9	89.1	89.4	90.4	77.9	80.2	86.9	95.5
Chemicals and drugs	86.9	87.5	78.5	81.0	75.5	71.4	74.4	81.3	91.2
Chemicals	94.2	95.3	85.5	87.2	78.6	79.5	79.7	85.1	96.3
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	82.9	83.0	73.2	73.8	72.2	54.6	58.9	63.4	68.7
Fertilizer materials	70.7	70.3	64.6	66.0	68.7	62.9	70.1	80.6	88.1
Mixed fertilizers	72.0	71.7	64.5	72.9	72.7	60.0	71.1	83.5	94.4
Housefurnishing goods	89.0	88.4	81.5	80.7	81.6	71.5	76.3	87.9	93.5
Furnishings	92.1	91.7	85.0	84.2	83.5	71.7	75.4	84.2	92.5
Furniture	85.8	85.0	78.0	77.1	79.9	71.5	77.4	91.9	94.6

[1] Data not yet available.

Table 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities—Continued

[1926=100]

Groups and subgroups	Apr. 1937	Mar. 1937	Apr. 1936	Apr. 1935	Apr. 1934	Apr. 1933	Apr. 1932	Apr. 1931	Apr. 1930
Miscellaneous	81.1	79.5	68.6	68.7	69.5	57.8	64.7	71.5	81.0
Automobile tires and tubes	56.4	55.0	45.0	46.3	44.6	37.4	39.2	46.9	53.0
Cattle feed	146.8	135.0	74.0	104.9	76.1	49.5	53.4	81.2	117.1
Paper and pulp	93.9	90.2	80.5	80.4	83.6	70.6	76.8	82.1	87.0
Rubber, crude	49.3	50.9	33.0	23.7	24.6	7.4	6.6	13.3	30.9
Other miscellaneous	85.3	84.8	80.6	79.0	83.2	72.7	84.5	89.3	98.8
Raw materials	88.7	90.1	77.0	77.5	65.1	50.0	55.5	68.3	89.8
Semimanufactured articles	89.5	89.6	74.5	72.3	73.9	57.3	59.6	71.5	86.1
Finished products	87.4	86.4	81.6	82.3	77.1	65.7	71.1	78.3	90.7
All commodities other than farm products	86.9	86.3	80.1	79.9	76.2	63.7	68.9	75.7	88.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods	86.5	85.5	78.9	77.2	78.6	65.3	70.9	75.9	87.8

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups

INDEX numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, by years from 1926 to 1936, inclusive, and by months from January 1936 to April 1937, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

Table 4.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	99.4	96.7	107.7	95.6	88.3	96.3	94.7	96.8	97.5	91.0	95.4
1928	105.9	101.0	121.4	95.5	84.3	97.0	94.1	95.6	95.1	85.4	96.7
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1930	88.3	90.5	100.0	80.3	78.5	92.1	89.9	89.1	92.7	77.7	86.4
1931	64.8	74.6	86.1	66.3	67.5	84.5	79.2	79.3	84.9	69.8	73.0
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1934	65.3	70.5	86.6	72.9	73.3	86.9	86.2	75.9	81.5	69.7	74.9
1935	78.8	83.7	89.6	70.9	73.5	86.4	85.3	80.5	80.6	68.3	80.0
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1936:											
January	78.2	83.5	97.1	71.7	75.1	86.7	85.7	80.5	81.4	67.8	80.6
February	79.5	83.2	96.1	71.0	76.1	86.7	85.5	80.1	81.5	68.1	80.6
March	76.5	80.1	94.9	70.8	76.2	86.6	85.3	79.3	81.4	68.3	79.6
April	76.9	80.2	94.6	70.2	76.4	86.6	85.7	78.5	81.5	68.6	79.7
May	75.2	78.0	94.0	69.8	76.0	86.3	85.8	77.7	81.5	69.2	78.6
June	78.1	79.9	93.8	69.7	76.1	86.2	85.8	78.0	81.4	69.7	79.2
July	81.3	81.4	93.4	70.5	76.2	86.9	86.7	79.4	81.2	71.0	80.5
August	83.8	83.1	93.6	70.9	76.3	87.1	86.9	79.8	81.4	71.5	81.6
September	84.0	83.3	94.6	70.9	76.1	86.8	87.1	81.7	81.7	71.3	81.6
October	84.0	82.6	95.6	71.6	76.8	86.9	87.3	82.2	82.0	71.5	81.5
November	85.1	83.9	97.0	73.5	76.8	87.9	87.7	82.5	82.3	73.4	82.4
December	88.5	85.5	99.7	76.3	76.5	89.6	89.5	85.3	83.2	74.5	84.2
1937:											
January	91.3	87.1	101.7	77.5	76.6	90.9	91.3	87.7	86.5	76.2	85.9
February	91.4	87.0	102.7	77.5	76.8	91.7	93.3	87.8	87.9	77.3	86.3
March	94.1	87.5	104.2	78.3	76.2	96.0	95.9	87.5	88.4	79.5	87.8
April	92.2	85.5	106.3	79.5	76.8	96.5	96.7	86.9	89.0	81.1	88.0

The price trend since 1926 is shown in table 5 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than those designated as farm products and foods. All commodities, with the exception of those included in the groups of farm products and foods, have been included in the group of "all commodities other than farm products and foods." The list of commodities included under the designations "raw materials", "semimanufactured articles", and "finished products" was given in the October 1934 issue of the Wholesale Price pamphlet.

Table 5.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1936—Continued.					
1927	96.5	94.3	95.0	94.6	94.0	April	77.0	74.5	81.6	80.1	78.9
1928	99.1	94.5	95.9	94.8	92.9	May	75.8	74.1	80.5	79.2	78.8
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	June	77.6	73.9	80.7	79.4	78.8
1930	84.3	81.8	88.0	85.9	85.2	July	79.8	75.2	81.6	80.3	79.5
1931	65.6	69.0	77.0	74.6	75.0	August	81.5	75.6	82.4	80.9	79.7
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	September	81.8	75.9	82.3	80.9	79.6
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	October	82.1	76.2	82.0	80.9	80.1
1934	68.6	72.8	78.2	76.9	78.4	November	83.1	78.6	82.6	81.7	81.0
1935	77.1	73.6	82.2	80.2	77.9	December	85.6	82.3	83.8	83.1	82.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	1937:					
1936:						January	88.1	85.4	84.9	84.6	83.4
January	78.1	74.8	82.4	80.9	78.8	February	88.3	85.5	85.4	85.0	84.1
February	79.1	74.6	82.2	80.7	79.0	March	90.1	89.6	86.4	86.3	85.5
March	77.4	74.4	81.3	80.2	78.9	April	88.7	89.5	87.4	86.9	86.5

Weekly Fluctuations

THE composite index of wholesale commodity prices advanced 0.6 percent between the last week of March and the first week of April. The general level of prices for the week ended April 3 was the highest recorded for the current year through the month of April. Following this peak, wholesale prices on the average showed a gradual decline throughout the remainder of the month, the index receding from 88.3 for the first week to 87.5 for the last week of the month. The average decline from the beginning to the close of the month was 0.3 percent. The fluctuations in the several group classifications during the month are shown by the weekly index numbers in table 6. The percentage changes from week to week in the groups are given in table 7.

Table 6.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Commodity Groups

[1926=100]

Commodity groups	Apr. 24, 1937	Apr. 17, 1937	Apr. 10, 1937	Apr. 3, 1937	Mar. 27, 1937	Mar. 20, 1937	Mar. 13, 1937	Mar. 6, 1937
All commodities	87.5	87.6	87.9	88.3	87.8	87.6	87.2	86.1
Farm products	92.7	92.4	93.5	96.0	94.7	94.4	93.6	91.6
Foods	85.0	85.3	86.1	87.9	87.5	87.9	87.3	86.3
Hides and leather products	106.7	107.2	106.8	106.0	105.7	105.0	104.2	103.4
Textile products	78.6	78.7	78.6	78.2	78.1	77.6	77.2	76.9
Fuel and lighting materials	77.6	77.5	77.1	77.2	76.9	76.8	77.2	77.7
Metals and metal products	95.1	95.8	96.3	96.1	96.0	96.0	95.8	92.2
Building materials	96.6	96.8	96.8	96.6	96.2	96.2	95.7	94.1
Chemicals and drugs	85.6	86.6	87.0	87.0	87.0	87.3	87.3	87.1
Housefurnishing goods	90.4	90.3	90.3	90.3	90.3	89.8	89.8	89.6
Miscellaneous	80.9	81.0	80.1	80.0	79.3	78.8	77.9	77.3
Raw materials	88.7	88.5	89.2	90.9	90.0	90.3	89.7	88.2
Semimanufactured articles	88.8	89.7	90.3	90.4	90.0	90.3	89.7	86.6
Finished products	87.1	87.3	87.3	87.1	86.8	86.4	86.1	85.4
All commodities other than farm products	86.4	86.6	86.6	86.6	86.2	86.1	85.8	84.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	86.2	86.5	86.3	86.1	85.8	85.6	85.4	84.5

Table 7.—Weekly Changes (Percent) During April 1937, by Groups of Commodities

Commodity groups	Percentage change from—				
	Mar. 27 to Apr. 24	Apr. 17 to Apr. 24	Apr. 10 to Apr. 17	Apr. 3 to Apr. 10	Mar. 27 to Apr. 3
All commodities	−0.3	−0.1	−0.3	−0.5	+0.6
Farm products	−2.1	+0.3	−1.2	−2.6	+1.4
Foods	−2.9	−.4	−.9	−2.0	+.5
Hides and leather products	+.9	−.5	+.4	+.8	+.3
Textile products	+.6	−.1	+.1	+.5	+.1
Fuel and lighting materials	+.9	+.1	+.5	−.1	+.4
Metals and metal products	−.9	−.7	−.5	+.2	+.1
Building materials	+.4	−.2	.0	+.2	+.4
Chemicals and drugs	−1.6	−1.2	−.5	.0	.0
Housefurnishing goods	+.1	+.1	.0	.0	.0
Miscellaneous	+2.0	−.1	+1.1	+.1	+.9
Raw materials	−1.4	+.2	−.8	−1.9	+1.0
Semimanufactured articles	−1.3	−1.0	−.7	−.1	+.4
Finished products	+.3	−.2	.0	+.2	+.3
All commodities other than farm products	+.2	−.2	.0	.0	+.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	+.5	−.3	+.2	+.2	+.3

Monthly Average Wholesale Prices and Index Numbers of Individual Commodities

THE table showing monthly average wholesale prices and index numbers of individual commodities formerly appearing in the Wholesale Price Report is now published semiannually instead of monthly. The December 1936 issue showed the average for the year 1936 and information for the last 6 months of 1936. The monthly figures will be furnished upon request.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS OF LABOR INTEREST

May 1937

Censuses

Census of business, 1935. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1937.

The census of business for 1935 covered retail and wholesale trade, service establishments, banking and finance, insurance, advertising, hotels, places of amusement, radio broadcasting, construction industry, bus transportation, motor trucking for hire, public warehousing, distribution of manufacturers' sales, and miscellaneous businesses. Reports for all these activities have been published or are in process of publication by the Bureau of the Census. The data presented include statistics of employment and total pay roll, and in the case of motor-bus transportation average weekly wages are shown by occupational groups, by amount of business done, and by geographic division.

Child Labor

A digest of the [Pennsylvania] laws controlling school attendance and employment of minors. Harrisburg, Pa., State Department of Public Instruction, 1936. 73 pp. (Bulletin 93—revised.)

Prepared to aid school officials in the interpretation of school-attendance and child-labor laws.

The newspaper boy—merchant or employee? By Charles A. Rohleder. Indianapolis, Newspaper Boys of America, Inc., 1937. 120 pp.

Brief of judicial decisions on the subject matter of the volume and a summary of various elements and principles involved in the problem.

Coal Industry

La politique charbonnière belge. By Charles Demeure. (In Bulletin de l'Institut des Sciences Économiques, Université Catholique de Louvain, February 1937, pp. 135–163.)

Review of conditions in the coal industry in Belgium in 1936, including statistics showing mine labor productivity and employment in 1936 and earlier years.

Cooperative Movement

Credit unions for Government employees. By C. R. Orchard. Chicago, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 850 East 58th Street, 1936. 13 pp. (Pamphlet No. 1.)

Statistics of farmers' marketing and purchasing associations, 1935–36 marketing season. By R. H. Elsworth. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, Cooperative Division, 1937. 18 pp., processed. (Miscellaneous Report No. 12.)

Data from this report are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

A selected bibliography of cooperation. By H. A. Izant. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1937. (In Year Book of Agricultural Cooperation, 1937, pp. 539–580; also reprinted.)

Rapport et comptes sur l'activité des organes de l'Union suisse des coopératives de consommation (U. S. C.) Bâle en 1936. Basel, Union suisse des coopératives de consommation, 1937. 119 pp., chart.

Report of the Swiss Consumers' Cooperative Union for 1936.

Cost of Living

La C. T. M. y la carestia de la vida. Mexico, D. F., Confederación de Trabajadores de México, 1937. 48 pp., charts.

A study of the rising cost of living in Mexico and proposed remedies for the existing situation. Parts of the study are reprinted from February, March, and April 1937 issues of Futuro, the labor monthly published by the Workers' University of Mexico.

Economic and Social Problems

On measurement of relative national standards of living. By M. K. Bennett. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., February 1937, pp. 317–335, charts; also reprinted.)

Industrial reconstruction and the control of competition—the British experiments. By Arthur Fletcher Lucas. London and New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1937. 384 pp.

Study of the growth of centralized control of British industry. There are discussions of the roles of government, of combines, and of associations of producers. The basic issues are defined as price control, regulation of output, maintenance of efficiency, and the development of economic and legal safeguards against monopoly. There are brief statements of the attitude of employees and of the effects of centralization on the working classes. The author believes that if monopolistic tendencies continue, there must be an increasing participation by the government in the internal affairs of industry.

Education and Guidance

Digest of annual reports of State boards for vocational education to the Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education, fiscal year ended June 30, 1936. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1937. Various paging, charts.

Statistics from this publication are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

The education of the blind: Being the report of the joint committee of the College of Teachers of the Blind and the National Institute for the Blind. London, Edward Arnold & Co., 1936. 344 pp., illus.

This conspectus of the special problems involved in the education of the blind includes a chapter on vocational training.

The social and vocational rehabilitation of the tuberculous. A survey presented with the cooperation of the Rehabilitation Department, National Tuberculosis Association. (In Occupations, The Vocational Guidance Magazine, New York, April 1937, pp. 581–633.)

A collection of articles focusing attention upon one class of the handicapped—the tuberculous—and on the need for vocational guidance in their rehabilitation. Of 100,000 discharged per annum from tuberculosis sanatoriums less than 2 percent receive any training with a view to their occupational adjustment.

Supervisory training in the Tennessee Valley Authority. By Gordon R. Clapp. Chicago, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 850 East 58th Street, 1936. 22 pp. (Pamphlet No. 3.)

Good references on guidance. By Maris M. Proffitt. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1936. 11 pp. (Bibliography No. 2, 1936 revision.)

Employment and Unemployment

Labor requirements in lumber production. By Bernard H. Topkis. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 529, reprint from May 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Labor markets in Iowa—characteristics and trends. By Herbert W. Bohlman. Des Moines, Drake University, 1937. 74 pp., map., charts.

Summarizes statistics of population, industries, and employment in Iowa, and records the labor-market experiences of various industries.

Population and unemployment. By Mordecai Ezekiel. (In The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, November 1936, pp. 230–242; charts.)

Filling 9 million jobs: An analysis of registrations and placements made by the U. S. Employment Service, July 1, 1934, to June 30, 1936. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, 1937. 149 pp., map, charts.

Records recent developments in the employment service, including a new reporting system and a new occupational code. Data are given on geographical distribution and ages of applicants, the industry in which they formerly worked, and what they can do.

Who are the job seekers? Characteristics of 7,800,000 employment-office registrants in December 1935 and 6,600,000 registrants in July 1936. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, 1937. 156 pp., maps, charts.

Some of the statistics in this report were published in the March 1937 Monthly Labor Review (pp. 712–719).

Factory Inspection

British factory inspection: A century of progress in administration of labor laws. By John B. Andrews. Washington, U. S. Division of Labor Standards, 1937. 56 pp., map, chart. (Bulletin No. 11.)

Information taken from this study has been incorporated in an article in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Health Insurance

Toward health insurance. By Bryant Putney. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1937. 20 pp. (Vol. 1, 1937, No. 9.)

A discussion of the cost of illness and of methods of meeting the risk. Sickness is regarded as a predictable risk.

Housing

Building construction, February 1937, with annual review for 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 77 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 538.)

Report of the Alley Dwelling Authority for the District of Columbia, 1934–1936. Washington, 1937. 25 pp., illus.

An account of activities from the establishment of the Authority through the calendar year 1936.

Small-dwelling project in the District of Columbia. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 99 pp. (Serial No. R. 531, reprint from March 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

1,376 dwellings in Montreal and Verdun. Report No. 1 of a cross-section survey of working class dwellings in the City of Montreal and Verdun. Montreal, Metropolitan Commission, Department of Planning and Research, 1937. 15 pp., mimeographed.

Reviewed in this issue.

The British Government in housing: A study of housing in England and Wales under the housing acts of 1851–1935. By Arthur Bassin. Washington, U. S. Central Housing Committee, 1937. 98 pp., mimeographed.

Eighth annual report of the Department of Health for Scotland, 1936. Edinburgh, 1937. 211 pp. (Cmd. 5407.)

The housing section of the report is summarized in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Housing confronts Congress. New York, New York City Housing Authority, 10 East 40th Street, 1937. 23 pp., illus.

Pertinent facts concerning the need for new housing and the relation of housing to private enterprise, prosperity, and the welfare of the people.

Housing—or else. By Langdon W. Post. New York, New York City Housing Authority, 10 East 40th Street, 1936. 22 pp.

Shows why the Government should provide low-cost housing.

The problem of slum areas in the United States and legal aspects of measures aimed at eradication and prevention. Washington, U. S. Central Housing Committee, 1936. 32 pp., mimeographed. (Special Report No. 2.)

Social and economic effects of existing foreclosure procedure and emergency moratorium legislation. Washington, U. S. Central Housing Committee, 1936. Various paging, mimeographed. (Special Report No. 1.)

Gives information for each State.

Wages, slums, and housing. By Langdon W. Post. New York, New York City Housing Authority, 10 East 40th Street, 1936. 16 pp.

Questions and answers on such subjects as whether efforts should be made to further payment of better wages instead of providing improved housing; and whether the carrying out of social-security plans would make housing provision unnecessary.

What price subsidy. New York, New York City Housing Authority, 10 East 40th Street, 1937. 23 pp., illus.

A discussion of the various types of subsidy, such as Federal, State, private-capital, deficit, and interest, and what may be accomplished by these means.

A glossary of housing terms. Washington, U. S. Central Housing Committee, 1937. 88 pp., processed.

This glossary, designed to eliminate confusion in housing terms, was compiled by a committee from five Federal agencies dealing with housing.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Annual summary of injuries in the petroleum industry for 1936. New York, American Petroleum Institute, 50 West 50th Street, 1937. 15 pp., chart.

Reports from 125 companies show 9,130 disabling accidents during operations in the United States in 1936, distributed as follows: 127 resulting in death or permanent total disability, 348 in permanent partial disability, and 8,655 in temporary disability. The severity rate, 1.89 days lost per 1,000 hours worked, was the highest for the past three years but represented a decline of 28.7 percent from the 1927 rate, the year of inception of the institute's accident-prevention program. The frequency rate, 14.55 disabling injuries per 1,000,000 hours worked, was the highest for the past six years but a decline of 53 percent from the 1927 rate. The recent increase in these rates is attributed to increased construction work and to the inexperience of new employees, intensified by shifts in operating schedules and the transfer of older employees to new tasks.

Twenty-fifth annual report of State Mine Inspector of Arizona, for year ending November 30, 1936. Phoenix, [1937?]. 22 pp.

Shows the number and nature of fatal and serious accidents and the number of inspections made, by company.

Tenth report of the Industrial Accident Board of the State of Idaho, from November 1, 1934, to October 31, 1936. Boise, [1936?]. 96 pp.

Contains detailed classifications of the claims filed and closed during the biennium, together with digests of selected cases illustrating the findings, rulings, and orders of the Board. The Board approved compensation and medical fees totaling $1,748,461 in connection with 18,491 cases, distributed as follows: 11 cases of permanent-total, 635 of permanent-partial, and 17,735 of temporary-total disability, and 110 fatalities.

Twenty-second annual report of the State Industrial Accident Commission of Maryland, for the year November 1, 1935, to October 31, 1936, inclusive. Baltimore, [1937?]. 48 pp.

During the fiscal year covered, 30,695 industrial accidents were reported, an increase of 2,048 over the previous year. Claims were allowed on 9,927 cases distributed as follows: 94 fatalities, 1 case resulting in permanent total disability, 424 cases resulting in permanent partial disability, and 9,408 cases in temporary total disability. Compensation and medical awards totaled $1,552,402.59, excluding awards for temporary-total disability continuing beyond the period of the report. The accidents are classified in detail by industries, age, sex, occupations, average wage, causes and nature of injuries, and number of dependents. Annual reports are included for the Safety Department and the State Accident Fund.

Fourth biennial report of North Carolina Industrial Commission, 1934-35, 1935-36. Raleigh, 1936. 32 pp., charts.

Gives data on number and cost of industrial injuries annually since 1929, on number and cost of injuries by type of disability and industry for 1934–35 and

1935–36, and on occupational diseases for 1935–36. There were increases in the following figures for injuries in 1935–36 over 1934–35: Total cases, from 27,172 to 32,568; total days lost, from 243,609 to 275,198; and compensation and medical costs, from $1,107,209 to $1,356,962. Comparative figures on occupational diseases are not available for 1934–35. An important change was made in the compensation law by the amendment of March 1935, which added asbestosis and silicosis to the list of compensable diseases. Studies of industries having silica-dust hazards have been made by the Industrial Hygiene Unit which was established in 1935 in the State Board of Public Health through the cooperation of the Industrial Commission and the U. S. Public Health Service.

Eighteenth annual report of the North Dakota Coal Mine Inspection Department, [November 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936]. Bismarck, [1937?] 36 pp.

Summarizes mine and boiler inspections, mine production, and fatal and nonfatal accidents, by companies.

Annual report of the State Insurance Fund of Puerto Rico, 1935–1936. San Juan, Department of Finance, State Insurance Fund, 1936. 31 pp. (In English.)

Information on industrial-accident insurance in Puerto Rico since 1916, with a résumé of the act of 1935 which established an exclusive State insurance fund compulsory to employers of four or more workmen. The experience for the period July 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936, including agricultural workmen, was as follows: 89 deaths, 1,188 permanent partial disabilities, and 32,660 temporary total disabilities. Compensation and medical benefits totaled $830,348.

Workmen's compensation in Puerto Rico—farm labor. By Ramon Montaner. San Juan, Department of Finance, State Insurance Fund, 1937. 9 pp. In English. (Bulletin of the State Insurance Fund, No. 1.)

A paper presented by the manager of the exclusive State insurance fund of Puerto Rico at the twenty-third annual convention of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, held in Topeka, Kans., September 21–25, 1936. Explains the peculiarities of the Puerto Rican system of accident insurance and compensation, due to the predominance of agricultural-labor coverage in the State fund (65 percent of the total number of policies).

Forty-fourth annual report [1934] of the Ontario Department of Mines. Toronto, 1936. 207 pp. (Sessional Paper No. 4, 1935, Legislative Assembly of Ontario.)

Contains a statistical review of the mineral industry of Ontario for 1934; a directory of mines, quarries, and works; mine-accident statistics; and data on employment in individual mines.

Thirty-three fatal and 1,913 nonfatal casualties were reported in 1934. The fatality rate increased from 1.57 per thousand men employed in 1933 to 1.61 in 1934, while the nonfatal rate decreased from 95 accidents per thousand men employed in 1933 to 93 in 1934.

Riksförsäkringsanstalten, år 1935. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1937. 32 pp.

Report on the experience of the State Insurance Office of Sweden during 1935, under the compulsory accident-insurance law. Printed in Swedish with table of contents and résumé in French.

Industrial Home Work

Industrial homework under the National Recovery Administration. By Mary Skinner. Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, 1936. 57 pp. (Publication No. 234.)

Report of a survey made by the Children's Bureau and the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor, at the request of the National Recovery Administration, of home-work conditions in industries in which home manufacture had been regulated but not prohibited in the N. R. A. codes. Part I discusses the general practice of home work, giving a brief historical account of its development and the legislative and administrative efforts to bring it under control. Part II deals with home work in specific industries, giving hours, earnings, number of home workers or home-working families, and experience in adjusting this phase of industry to code conditions.

Industrial Hygiene

Disabling illness among industrial employees in 1935 as compared with earlier years. By Dean K. Brundage. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 8 pp. (Reprint No. 1792 from Public Health Reports, Jan. 1, 1937.)

The report shows that the annual number of cases of sickness and nonindustrial accidents lasting 8 days or longer among approximately 158,000 male industrial employees was higher in 1935 than in 1933 or 1934 but lower than for the years 1930, 1931, or 1932. No one particular disease or disease group was responsible for this increase.

Engineering control of occupational diseases. By J. J. Bloomfield. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1936. 13 pp., diagrams. (Reprint No. 1749 from Public Health Reports, May 22, 1936.)

The responsibility for control of occupational disease is stated to lie chiefly within the spheres of the physician, in diagnosing illness, and the engineer, in controlling working conditions. A brief bibliography is included.

Health protection of welders. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Industrial Health Section, [1937?]. 27 pp., chart, illus.

Protection against toxic gases in industry. By J. Davidson Pratt. London, Institute of Chemistry of Great Britain and Ireland, 1936. 24 pp.

Shows the volume of concentration at which given gases are dangerous, and describes tests by which the amount present in the atmosphere can be determined.

National Silicosis Conference: Summary reports submitted to the Secretary of Labor by Conference Committees, February 3, 1937. Washington, U. S. Division of Labor Standards, 1937. 56 pp. (Bulletin No. 13.)

The reports of four committees of experts appointed at the first conference called by the Secretary of Labor, in April 1936, to investigate the silicosis problem. The subjects dealt with by the committees covered the prevention of silicosis through medical control and through engineering control, the economic, legal, and insurance phases of the silicosis problem, and its regulatory and administrative phases. A list of selected references is appended.

The recommendations of the committees were summarized in the Monthly Labor Review for April 1937 (pp. 909–914).

Report of the director, and financial report, of Saranac Laboratory for the Study of Tuberculosis, for year ending September 30, 1936. Saranac, N. Y., Edward L. Trudeau Foundation, [1937?]. Various paging.

Reprints of several papers on silicosis are appended to the report.

The physiological response of peritoneal tissue to certain industrial and pure mineral dusts. By John W. Miller and R. R. Sayers. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 13 pp., illus. (Reprint No. 1787 from Public Health Reports, Dec. 4, 1936.)

An experimental study showing the effects of certain dusts when injected into the peritoneal cavity of guinea pigs. The method is of value in showing the degree of harmfulness of different kinds of dust encountered in industrial processes.

An estimate of the monetary value to industry of plant medical and safety services. By Dean K. Brundage. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1936. 15 pp. (Reprint No. 1765 from Public Health Reports, Aug. 21, 1936.)

Cites statistics to show monetary savings resulting from accident reduction in specific establishments and the general results of accident-prevention work.

The Ross-Loos Clinic: A pioneer venture in group medical service for public employees. By H. U. M. Higgins. Chicago, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 850 East 58th Street, 1936. 29 pp. (Pamphlet No. 2.)

While this clinic was organized in 1929 by the public employees of Los Angeles, and is still sponsored by them, the employees of a number of commercial and industrial establishments in that area have been brought within the scope of its activities.

Julius Rosenwald Fund—eight years' work in medical economics, 1929–1936. Chicago, Julius Rosenwald Fund, 4901 Ellis Avenue, 1937. 43 pp., charts, illus.

Reviews recent trends such as the activities of the committee on the costs of medical care, and the emergence of group medical plans, and points out the probability of marked changes in the field of medical service in the future.

Industrial Relations

The General Motors Corporation strike. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 7 pp. (Serial No. R. 534, reprint from March 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Why did the auto workers strike? (In Social Action, national organ of Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York, February 15, 1937, pp.3–22.)

Industrial relations in urban transportation. By Emerson P. Schmidt. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1937. 264 pp.

The first part of the volume is devoted to the growth of the industry; and the second, to the growth and activities of organized labor, including information on strikes, arbitration, wages and hours, union employees' benefit system, and job control.

International Labor Relations

Labor treaties and labor compacts. By Abraham C. Weinfeld. Bloomington, Ind., Principia Press, Inc., 1937. 136 pp.

This volume is of particular interest in connection with the discussion of the authority of Congress to approve conventions adopted by the International Labor Organization. The study concerns itself with the principal constitutional and other legal problems arising out of regulation of labor conditions by treaty, and also with certain aspects of interstate compacts.

Jewelry Industry

Survey of hours, wages and other conditions of employment in the jewelry industry in the State of Rhode Island. Providence, Rhode Island Department of Labor, Division of Women and Children, 1936. 59 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Reviewed in this issue.

Labor Legislation

Proceedings of the Third National Conference on Labor Legislation, Washington, D. C., November 9–11, 1936. Washington, U. S. Division of Labor Standards, 1937. 130 pp. (Bulletin No. 12.)

Handbook on Massachusetts labor law. By Bernard Joseph Rubenstein. Boston, Excelsior Press, Inc., 1936. 117 pp.

[*Labor laws of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, of the U. S. S. R.*] Moscow, State Office for Law Publications, 1936. 208 pp. (In Russian.)

Code of labor laws of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic from 1922 to May 1, 1936. The matters covered by these laws include compulsory labor service, labor agreements, disciplinary rules, standards of output, wages, and other labor conditions.

Labor Organization

Organized labor movement, 1929 to 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 36 pp. (Serial No. R. 513, reprint from Monthly Labor Review for January and February 1937.)

Labor Turnover

Labor turnover in the cotton industry, 1935 and 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 535, reprint from March 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Legal Aid

Sixty-first annual report of the Legal Aid Society [of New York City], for the year 1936. New York, 11 Park Place, 1937. 48 pp.

The new cases submitted to the society in the year 1936 totaled 28,865, of which 1,606 were on the criminal side and the remainder on the civil side. The expenses of the Society for this period aggregated $116,219.10, and the amount received for clients was $82,805.62. These figures do not include outside settlements.

Migratory Labor

Migratory farm labor in the United States. By Paul S. Taylor. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 530, reprint from March 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Mining Industry

Thirty-eighth annual report of the mining industry of Idaho, for the year 1936. Boise, Inspector of Mines, [1937?]. 315 pp., maps, illus.

Gives data on mineral production, accidents, mine-rescue work, safety, and employment. There is also a directory of companies by counties.

Annual report of the Department of Mines of West Virginia, for 1935. Charleston, [1936?]. 110 pp.

Contains directories of coal mines and quarries, and data on coal and coke production, employment, labor disputes, wages, and prices. Statistics on accidents for 1935 are given by counties and companies, classified by cause of accident and by nationality, age, experience, and occupation of employee. A summary of data on accidents and disasters since 1883 is also included.

Reports of the executive committee, gold producers' committee and collieries committee of the Transvaal Chamber of Mines, for the year 1936. Johannesburg, 1937. 29 pp.

Sections of labor interest deal with holiday allowances, medical benefits, and the mine workers' union.

National Recovery Administration

NRA economic planning. By Charles Frederick Roos. Bloomington, Ind., Principia Press, Inc., 1937. 596 pp. (Cowles Commission for Research in Economics, Colorado Springs, Colo., Monograph No. 2.)

The history of the National Industrial Recovery Act and a documented analysis of operations under it, written on the basis of personal experience of the author with the N. R. A. organization.

Negro in Industry

Earnings of Negroes in the iron and steel industry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 532, reprint from March 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Report of the National Conference on the problems of the Negro and Negro youth, held in the Government Auditorium, Department of Labor, Washington, January 6–8, 1937. Washington, [U. S. National Youth Administration], 1937. 48 pp., mimeographed.

A brief account of this conference was given in the February 1937 Monthly Labor Review (pp. 345–348).

Nutrition

The international campaign for better nutrition. By F. G. Boudreau, M. D. (In Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, New York, 40 Wall Street, April 1937, pp. 103–120.)

Reviews activities of international organizations looking toward better nutrition.

Occupations

Government employment as a professional career in economics. By Isador Lubin. (In Supplement to American Economic Review, March 1937, pp. 216–224; also reprinted.)

An address at the meeting of the American Economic Association, December 29, 1936.

The deaf and the hard-of-hearing in the occupational world. By Elise H. Martens. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1937. 95 pp.; map, charts, bibliography. (Bulletin, 1936, No. 13.)

Advance data from this study were published in the December 1936 Monthly Labor Review (pp. 1416–1419).

Old-Age and Invalidity Pensions

Second annual report of Iowa Old Age Assistance Commission, July 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936. Des Moines, 1937. 30 pp., chart.

The administration of old-age assistance in New Jersey; 1935–1936 report, with four-year summary. Trenton, Department of Institutions and Agencies, Division of Old Age Assistance, 1937. 29 pp., charts. (Publication No. 33.)

Summary statistics of number of persons aided, characteristics of pensioners, administrative procedures, provisions of law under which aid is given, etc.

Rapport de la Commission supérieure de la Caisse nationale des Retraites pour la Vieillesse sur les opérations et la situation de cette caisse, année 1935. Paris, 1936. 154 pp.

Annual report on operation of the French old-age pension system in 1935.

Beretning fra Invalideforsikringsretten for aaret 1935. Copenhagen, 1937. 131 pp.

Annual report on invalidity insurance in Denmark in 1935. A summary in English of legislative provisions concerning invalidity insurance, and English translations of table heads, are provided.

Planning

Planning of public works in relation to employment. Third item on agenda of International Labor Conference, 23d session, Geneva, 1937 (Report III). Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.), 1937. 273 pp.

Covers the work of various countries in national planning and coordination of public works, conditions of employment, and other labor provisions for those engaged on public work.

Prices

Changes in retail prices of gas, 1923–36. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 52 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 628.)

Prison Labor

The prison labor problem in Tennessee. Washington, U. S. Prison Industries Reorganization Administration, 1937. 98 pp., mimeographed.

On the basis of this survey a number of recommendations are made for improvement of the prison system. Among the suggestions is one that a State-use law be enacted providing for purchase of prison products by tax-supported institutions and agencies.

Recreation

Wider participation in planning and developing leisure-time activities: Second annual city-wide recreation conference, Chicago, 1936. Chicago, Recreation Commission, 1936. 21 pp.

The report contains addresses by several persons prominent in the field of recreation, and an outline of the Chicago Recreation Commission's activities.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Survey of workers separated from WPA employment in eight areas during the second quarter of 1936. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, 1937. 12 pp. (Research Bulletin, Series IV, No. 3.)

Covers 4,552 cases, which are classified in the 3 following groups: (1) Those who derived the major part of their income from private employment; (2) those whose income was mainly from relief or miscellaneous sources or who had no income; and (3) those transferred to work projects operated by agencies other than WPA, and were presumably still chiefly supported by income from Works Program employment.

Trends in different types of public and private relief in urban areas, 1929–35. By Emma A. Winslow. Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, 1937. 143 pp., charts. (Publication No. 237.)

Urban workers on relief: Part I, The occupational characteristics of workers on relief in urban areas, May 1934. By Gladys L. Palmer and Katherine D. Wood. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, 1936. xxvii, 203 pp., charts. (Research Monograph IV.)

This survey was undertaken with a view to answering the following and other questions: Why were these workers on relief? What were their previous occupations? How long had they been unemployed? Were they young or old? What were their chances of getting back into private industry? What types of employment should be provided for them by a work-relief program?

Unemployment and its treatment in the United States. A report submitted to the Third International Conference of Social Work in London, in July 1936. By Dorothy C. Kahn. New York, American Association of Social Workers, 130 East 22d Street, 1937. 105 pp., charts.

A general description in summary form of the unemployment-relief measures adopted in this country.

Work creation policy in Germany, 1932–1935. By Leo Grebler. (In International Labor Review, International Labor Office, Geneva, Switzerland, March 1937, pp. 329–351; April 1937, pp. 505–527.)

Unemployment and community service. London, National Council of Social Service, 26 Bedford Square, W. C. 1, 1936. 99 pp., illus.

Information on occupational clubs for the unemployed in Great Britain, taken from this publication, is given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

A modern public assistance program for Pennsylvania. First general report and recommendations of Pennsylvania Committee on Public Assistance and Relief. Philadelphia, 1936. 115 pp.

Public assistance and relief in Pennsylvania. Second preliminary report and recommendations of Pennsylvania Committee on Public Assistance and Relief. Philadelphia, 1936. 126 pp.

Annual report of the Iowa State Commission for the Blind, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1936. Des Moines, [1936?]. 23 pp.

Social Security

Industrial social security in the South. By Robin Hood. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1936. 22 pp. (Southern Policy Committee, Southern Policy Papers, No. 5.)

The Social Security Analyst. Vol. 1, No. 1. Chicago, Foundation Press, Inc., January 1937. 48 pp.

First issue of a periodical designed to assist business men and their advisers on matters relating to the operation of social-security laws, to promote sound growth of such laws, and to "educate public opinion."

Kertomus eläkekassoista sekä sairaus- ja hautausapukassoista ja -renkaista vuonna 1934. Helsinki, Sosialiministeriö, 1936. 119 pp.

Report on the operations of the pension funds and of the sickness and death benefit associations in Finland in 1934. In Finnish and Swedish, with table of contents, resumé, and list of table heads in French.

Rapport de la Commission supérieure des Caisses nationales d'Assurances en Cas de Décès et en Cas d'Accidents sur les opérations et la situation de ces deux caisses, année 1935. Paris, 1936. 57 pp., charts.

Annual report for 1935 on the operation of the national death- and accident-insurance funds of France.

Britain's social aid and ours. Memoranda compiled by the executive director of the Canadian Welfare Council from observation of the British Social Services, 1934–36. Ottawa, Canadian Welfare Council, 1936. 56 pp.

Covers the various types of social insurance, public assistance, housing, and occupational projects.

Tennessee Valley Authority

Tennessee Valley Authority, 1933–1937. Washington, [Tennessee Valley Authority], 1937. 84 pp., map, illus.

An account of the work of the Authority, including sections dealing with recreation, selection of workers, and provision made for health, housing, etc., of employees.

Textile Industry

A graphical survey of the Canadian textile industries. By James A. Coote. Montreal, McGill University, 1936. 248 pp., charts. (Social Research Series No. 4.)

Presents fundamental facts and trends, including wage statistics. The year for which data are given is rarely beyond 1933, while figures selected to indicate the position in a particular year are ordinarily those of 1930 and 1931.

Unemployment Insurance

The Kansas labor market, with special reference to unemployment compensation. By Domenico Gagliardo. Lawrence, University of Kansas, 1937. 71 pp. (Humanistic Studies, Vol. VI, No. 1.)

A survey of the labor market in Missouri in relation to unemployment compensation. By Joseph M. Klamon and others. St. Louis, 1937. 115 pp., map. (Washington University Studies, New Series, Social and Philosophical Sciences, No. 5.)

An analysis of the labor-market problems of the region in relation to the development of social security policies.

Seasonal employment and unemployment compensation in Oregon. By Blair Stewart. Portland, Oreg., Reed College, 1937. 44 pp., maps, charts.

This study of the character of employment in Oregon was undertaken to discover what specific problems would confront the State government in the administration of unemployment compensation.

Reports of the Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee of Great Britain, on the financial condition of the unemployment fund on December 31, 1936. London, 1937. 44 pp.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Union scales of wages and hours in the printing industry, May 15, 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 536, reprint from March 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Statistics of wage rates in Palestine, 1936. Jerusalem, Office of Statistics, 1937. 12 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Wage Rate Statistics Bulletin No. 2, 1937.)

Index numbers of daily wage rates, and the prevailing daily money wages (in Palestine currency) in selected occupations, are given separately for Arab and Jewish labor for each year 1931 to 1936 (the indexes for Jewish labor go back to 1927), with more detailed data, by industry and occupation, on rates prevailing in November 1936. Some of the data for November 1936 are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Wage determination number 55 for the textile industry (Union of South Africa) with reports of the Wage Board. Pretoria, Department of Labor and Social Welfare, 1937. 92 pp. (In English and Dutch.)

The wage scale is shown as made effective February 8, 1937, for a two-year period, and subject to revision at the expiration of that time. In an accompanying report, a review of conditions in the textile industry is given.

Wage determination. By John W. Riegel. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Bureau of Industrial Relations, 1937. 138 pp.

Youth Problems

Facing the problems of youth: The work and objectives of the National Youth Administration. Washington, U. S. National Youth Administration, 1936. 35 pp., charts, illus.

Directory of youth organizations. Compiled by Mary Rodgers Lindsay assisted by Alexander Rauchman. New York City, U. S. National Youth Administration, 265 West 14th Street, 1937. 113 pp., mimeographed.

Gives not only the names and addresses of various organizations but also, when available, the names of their officers, their membership, purposes, history, programs, activities, affiliations, and publications.

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General Reports

Second annual report of the Central Statistical Board, January 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936. Washington, 1937. 43 pp.

Reviewed in this issue.

Governors' messages. Washington, National Education Association, 1937. 44 pp., mimeographed.

A compilation of excerpts with reference to educational matters, including teachers' salaries, tenure, and retirement funds; shortage of skilled labor; vocational training and rehabilitation; Negro training and education; adult education.

Biennial report of North Carolina Department of Labor, July 1, 1934, to June 30, 1936. Raleigh, [1936?]. 156 pp., charts.

More than half of this publication is devoted to the work of the State employment service. Reports are also made on the activities of the division of standards and inspections, the division of statistics, and the veterans' service division, and on child labor in the State.

Fourteenth biennial report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Texas, 1935–1936. San Antonio, [1936?]. 59 pp., charts.

Contains considerable data on the enforcement of various labor laws and many recommendations for amendments to existing statutes and for new labor legislation. Information is also given on industrial inspections, the State employment service, and the number of employees in mercantile and manufacturing establishments in specified wage groups.

Biennial report of the Commissioner of Industries of Vermont, for the two years ending June 30, 1936. Barre, [1936?]. 21 pp.

Summarizes the activities of the office in connection with employers' liability and workmen's compensation, factory inspection, employment of women and minors, wages, and conciliation and arbitration. Data on accidents are tabulated by industry, cause, extent of disability, and fatalities. In 1934–35, 22 fatal and 5,816 nonfatal cases were reported; in 1935–36, 24 fatal and 8,044 nonfatal. Compensation and medical benefits totaled $298,392 in 1934–35 and $324,309 in 1935–36.

Thirty-ninth annual report of the Department of Labor and Industry of Virginia, for the year ending September 30, 1936. Richmond, 1936. 32 pp.

Reviews the work of the divisions of research and statistics, mines and quarries, women and children, factory inspection, and public employment service. Also gives data on employment, wages, production, and accidents in mines and quarries.

Labor report [of Australian Bureau of Census and Statistics], 1935. Canberra, 1937. 179 pp.

The present issue of this annual report gives information on prices and cost of living, wages and hours, employment, industrial accidents, industrial disputes, and labor and employer organizations.

The official year book of New South Wales, 1934–35. Sydney, Bureau of Statistics and Economics, 1937. 940 pp., map.

Sections deal with employment, industrial arbitration, wages, production, factories, and cost of living.

Statistics of factories subject to the Factories Act [India], 1934, for the year ending December 31, 1935, together with a note on the working of the Factories Act during the year. Delhi, Department of Industries and Labor, 1937. 39 pp.

Gives data on employment, working hours, wages, accidents, safety measures, housing of workers, health and sanitation, welfare work, and inspections.

Report of Department of Labor and Social Welfare, Union of South Africa, for year ended December 1935. Pretoria, 1937. 98 pp.

Includes the report of the chief inspector of factories and the workmen's compensation commissioner.

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